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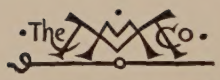
THE COUNTRY TEACHER AT WORK



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Young Citizens League of South Dakota

First Annual State Convention at Pierre, April, 1927.

THE COUNTRY TEACHER AT WORK

STATE UNIVERSITY
STEVENS POINT, WIS.

BY

FRANK J. LOWTH

PRINCIPAL ROCK COUNTY RURAL NORMAL SCHOOL
JANESVILLE, WISCONSIN

Author of "Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher"

NEW YORK
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To that important and worthy company of American one-room rural teachers — an army of over one hundred fifty thousand — many of whom throughout the United States have cordially received the author's first book — *Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher* — this second volume is dedicated with warm regard and in the earnest hope that it may still further aid these young people in carrying forward their urgently needed task of training country boys and girls for effective social-civic participation in our American democracy.

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PREFACE

There is little excuse for any author to inflict a preface upon his readers unless such foreword somewhat justifies itself by satisfying some rational need. The main purpose of this brief prefatory statement is to indicate why the title of this book is a suitable designation for the organization of materials and to characterize in general the nature of the contents.

The unifying idea of *objectives* (a term which has been used in the title of each of the five main divisions of the book as well as in two chapter titles) is the key to the selection and organization of the present subject matter. The notion of ultimate and significantly purposeful ends should characterize all profitable study of rural-school as well as of other educational problems. When teachers and supervisors become clearly conscious of enduring aims and principles in educational practices and procedures, more certain progress will be made in habituating boys and girls to effective social-civic participation.

The suggestions presented in the following pages stand about midway between those which are general, abstract, and often impractical, on the one hand, and minute, detailed teaching devices, or class exercises, on the other hand. Doubtless there is an important place for both types of discussion but the following chapters contain material which cannot properly be classed under either head. It is hoped that in selection of topics and in method of treatment, the author may have succeeded in rendering a needful service to the ambitious, working rural teacher as she is engaged at her

daily tasks. The chief thought has been actually to help this earnest teacher through the presentation of useful and usable materials. The reader will not find much in the way of purely theoretical considerations; such as there are serve only as the explanatory basis for practical suggestions and illustrations, which make up the bulk of the volume.

This book is the direct outgrowth of the writer's experience for many years in training rural teachers in a county normal school at Janesville, Wisconsin, and in the supervision of graduates in country schools; it would not have been possible without such experience. Many of the paragraphs in the following chapters have been used repeatedly in oral discussions with many classes of young people, although in different relations and settings and very likely with different wording and emphasis. The writer believes that they will be found of practical value and usefulness in all institutions where rural teachers are being prepared for their work.

The author is unquestionably indebted indirectly, if not directly, for both information and inspiration to numerous writers, educational and otherwise, whose books he has read during the past thirty years; quite evidently, it is impossible to give individual acknowledgment of such indebtedness. The writer has lived long enough to have witnessed many educational fads come and go, and he has noted with satisfaction the inevitable persistence of fundamental principles and procedures. At the present time, we are apparently in the midst of a transition period in which practice has not kept pace with the later developments of well-accepted theory. It seems true, however, that the rural school is clearly not the place for experimentation in the field of unsettled educational practices or processes. Therefore, the reader of this book will not find herein materials or procedures of doubtful soundness or validity.

Grateful acknowledgment of indebtedness is hereby made for careful readings and valuable suggestions to Dr. C. C. Van Liew, of The Macmillan Company, New York City; to Mr. O. W. Neale, an experienced conductor of rural-teacher institutes, and director of rural education, State Teachers College, Stevens Point, Wisconsin; and to Mr. J. C. Brockert, formerly a county superintendent, and now for many years principal of the rural-teacher training department in the Platteville (Wisconsin) State Teachers College.

Mr. Walter E. Larson of Sawyer, Wisconsin, state supervisor of rural schools in Wisconsin for a number of years, has read the entire manuscript, and has made many highly practical suggestions. Mr. Larson's long, direct, and intimate contact with rural-school conditions, needs, and problems especially qualifies him to pass judgment upon the work and service of the rural teacher. Miss Elda L. Merton, assistant superintendent of schools in Waukesha, Wisconsin, has rendered valuable assistance on the chapter pertaining to seatwork activities, as a result of her fruitful experience in grade school supervision and also in the field of authorship. The writer appreciates the service rendered by these constructive and helpful critics.

F. J. L.

Janesville, Wisconsin
June, 1930

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THE COUNTRY TEACHER AT WORK

CHAPTER I

CHARACTER — CONDUCT — CITIZENSHIP

If the schools of America are to prepare boys and girls for actual participating citizenship, then the course of study and the daily moral and social guidance must bear fruit in right conduct. Undoubtedly the great purpose of all education is the development of such sound character, or strength of personality, as will make for the best interests of the individual as well as of the various social groups with which he comes into daily contact. Probably no more important chapter in any book could be written than one which deals with character, conduct, and citizenship. Any teacher who thinks of her work with children in terms of wholesome, effective citizenship will not go far astray in her educational practices and procedures. All the work of the school should take into account the character and the personal conduct of pupils as matters of vital concern to the individual, to the family, and to the state.

I. Interrelations and dependencies. Character is what we really are and reputation is what people think we are. Conduct is the raw material out of which character is made. Matthew Arnold said long ago that conduct is three fourths of life. It is probably equally true that conduct is made up of at least three-fourths habit. It is our reactions to our environment from moment to moment and from day to day that determine the general nature of our characters. Character is the outcome of innumerable acts of conduct. Unless we encounter situations which demand thinking, our

daily conduct is largely a matter of habit. Kilpatrick says that "character is the organized aggregate of working habits." Our ideas, ideals, and habits determine our conduct and they also certainly indicate the kind of characters we now possess. A teacher should use the subject matter of the course of study to develop correct ideas, ideals, and habits, thus insuring daily conduct that benefits both the individual himself and his social groups.

Above everything else, the schools must stand for good citizenship and they must consciously and directly develop such citizenship. No community, state, or nation can ever rise higher in civilization than the character of its individual citizens makes possible. Education for effective citizenship is the type of education we need in America. The good citizen is the one who possesses the good character. Character is the stuff of which the citizenship is composed. The public-spirited citizen who does his civic duty in the community is the citizen whose character is made up of the proper and adequate ideas, ideals, and habits. These personality qualities have direct relation to effective social-civic service for the community, where they function constantly. The good citizen informs himself on public affairs; he votes; he faithfully discharges duties of public office — all because in some way, through home, school, church, and other agencies, he has secured those elements of character which prompt him to such active, sympathetic social participation.

II. There is a reason. There is a reason for everything, if we can only find it. We live in a world of *law*, not *chance;* every effect has its cause. In character building or the development of personality the basic laws of learning apply with the same force as elsewhere. There is a central nervous system with its nerve cells and their bonds or connections;

physiologically, moral education is nothing more or less than the establishment of pathways for the discharge of nervous energy in ways that are socially approved and accepted. The three principal laws which apply in all types of learning are: law of exercise, law of effect, and law of readiness. There is space here for only a brief discussion of these laws, but teachers should understand and make use of them in all their teaching, whether they are dealing with the mental, the moral, or the physical nature of their pupils.

Teachers have always applied the *law of exercise,* which is called by some writers the law of use, and which implies its correlative, disuse. If acts of courage, honesty, kindness, or fidelity are repeated often enough in the presence of situations which call for them, habits of courage, honesty, kindness, and fidelity will ultimately be formed. The law of exercise underlies drill or practice, which occupies so much of the time of the country teacher. The law applies with equal force in learning to spell *privilege;* in fixing the fact that 7 plus 8 are 15; in attaining skill to write one's name; in securing proficiency at typewriting or operating a car; in fixing the habit of chewing food sufficiently; or in habituating oneself to telling the truth.

Not so commonly, however, have teachers made use of the *law of effect.* This law means, essentially, that one tends to repeat (or to seek) those actions or responses in life situations which satisfy an inner need, want, or urge; and, conversely, that one does not commonly repeat (or seek) those reactions which produce a feeling of dissatisfaction or annoyance. Only those reactions which the child likes to repeat result in the most effective learning. This includes of course those cultivated likes and dislikes which we call interests. Too often in the past teachers

have not seen to it that results which are satisfying and pleasurable were associated with the learning process. In the end, therefore, the development of character depends upon those acts on the child's part or, as we commonly put it, upon that *conduct* in which the child himself finds pleasure and takes satisfaction. It is only in response to an inner urge — an urge that must be gratified — that the child ever cultivates the habit of lending a helping hand when he finds a comrade or an animal in distress, or of sticking honestly to the rules of the game on the playground. Of course it is true that so far as moral issues are concerned the law is blind, that is, *un*moral. Under its operation the child might be cruel or dishonest just as long as acts of cruelty or dishonesty give him inner satisfaction. This dilemma is of course only to be met by bringing the child face to face with the ends or objectives which society approves. That subject is discussed later in this book.

The *law of readiness* is not exactly the same as the law of mind-set, as some writers seem to infer. However, readiness and mind-set are closely related, and both have reference to the *poise* of the organism for reaction or response. The ball player, for example, is *poised* for the next play; or the debater is *poised* for ready argument. Fatigue therefore decreases readiness, and rest restores it. The general attitude of the learner, his store of ideas, his acquired skills, his habits of thought and action, his feelings, all have to do with the individual's readiness to react.

The teacher may make use of coercion or force, but any teacher who understands the laws of learning and of all human growth and development will see that her main function is to change the ideas and attitudes of her pupils, and to secure willing responses to right motives. Correct moral habits are built up through particular responses to

particular social situations. The function of the school is to furnish adequate social situations, and then so to motivate pupil activities that natural, willing, cheerful, spontaneous responses will be the result (*i.e.*, to apply the *S-R* formula — *situation*, or *stimulus*, followed by *response*). Unless the child's reactions spring from inner conviction the obedience is unnatural, strained, and unavailing in the shaping of personality. Right conduct and good citizenship are the product of right thinking and feeling.

With smaller children forced obedience may sometimes be necessary, as indicated elsewhere, because the individual may not be able to understand the reasons for the desired and desirable conduct. As soon as possible, however, the character of the response should be raised to a higher level. If the school system affords rich social opportunity for natural, whole-hearted social response, the individual child will find satisfaction rather than annoyance in his reactions. Real satisfying experience on the child's mental and moral level is a vital necessity. Book situations are often unreal and do not produce the desired change of character. As Professor Kilpatrick suggests, three things are essential: (*a*) a sensitivity to what is involved in the moral situation; (*b*) a deliberate weighing of the various and varying elements of the situation in order to arrive at some decision; and (*c*) the actual doing or responding. A true moral act always comprises all three of these factors. Essentially, character is the net product of many acts of conduct. Particular responses to particular situations ultimately build up an organized system of habits, the physiological basis of which are the bonds or connections between the nerve cells.

III. Courses in morals and manners. In 1923 the Federal Bureau of Education issued *Bulletin No. 42*, entitled "Analytic Survey of State Courses of Study for Rural

Elementary Schools." This survey was prepared by Professor Charles M. Reinoehl, at that time on the faculty of the University of Arkansas. Under the head of Manners and Morals Professor Reinoehl writes as follows:

This subject holds the least prominent position among the subjects of the curriculum (Table 15). Twenty-seven states provide outlines or suggestions for the training of children in manners and morals. It is advisable to give suggestions in state courses regarding the training of children in proper manners and morals, but providing graded outlines on the various virtues is not justified by practice.

The dominant aim of moral education is the development of proper attitudes, giving rise to worthy conduct. The most frequently stated reasons for training in manners and morals are: (1) to cultivate a sense of moral obligation and duty; (2) to produce law-abiding, law-respecting citizens; (3) to arouse high moral ideals; (4) to kindle ambition and instill confidence; (5) to develop a moral character.

State courses of study are, in general, against formal instruction in morals at school. The most effective way of training children in manners and morals is, in all probability, through the regular lessons and in connection with all school activities.

There are numerous virtues for the training of children. From 25 to 50 of the leading virtues may well be selected for occasional special attention during opening exercises. Opportune times at psychologic moments should not be lost for special lessons in conduct.

Topics in Elementary School Manners and Morals Arranged in Order of Their Frequency of Appearance in 27 State Courses of Study

Appearing in 80 per cent or more of the courses —

Obedience	Patriotism	Truthfulness
Honesty, reliability	Politeness	Courage, bravery

Self-control	Kindness to animals	Courtesy
Justice, fairness	Industry, good workmanship	Regard for others
Kindness to others		

Appearing in 60 to 80 per cent of the courses —

Charity	Good manners	Reverence
Cleanliness	Helpfulness	Self-respect
Neatness	Generosity, hospitality	Patience
Promptness	Service	Faithfulness
Respect	Coöperation	Responsibility
Accuracy	Personality	Punctuality
Fidelity, loyalty	Cheerfulness	

Appearing in 40 to 60 per cent of the courses —

Gratitude	Health	Perseverance
Nobility	Thankfulness	Leadership
Forgiveness	Right conduct	High ideals
Duty	Self-reliance	Purity
Love	Orderliness	Unselfishness
Temperance	Honor	

A content that is vital to the life of children is also vital to their moral development. Courses in arithmetic, history, reading, language, and geography should become more truly moral courses by having woven into their outlines the socialized moral contents vital to a child's life. The most effective way of presenting morals in courses of study is, in all probability, through the regular lessons in all subjects. Courses in the various subjects are lacking in helpful suggestions on effective correlations.

Every subject should be made a moral subject. A subject of study consisting of material so selected and so organized as to influence behavior in some desirable way is, undoubtedly, a moral course. If this is to be the ideal of the new rural course, then many state courses need to be so rewritten as to contain the functional material that results in desirable conduct.

IV. Courses in citizenship. In the bulletin mentioned in the preceding section the following recommendations of

principles for guidance in the improvement of courses in citizenship for rural schools are suggested:

1. Ungraded general suggestions provided for the teaching of each citizenship subject
2. Graded outlines in history provided for grades five to eight
3. History and civics outlined with language in the four lower grades. History and civics outlined together for grades five to eight
4. Manners and morals made a part of the socialized moral content of every subject
5. Training for intelligent citizenship made dominant
6. Study of American history in upper grades preceded by the history of Europe in story form
7. Those content materials in history selected that explain the present
8. Community civics emphasized with less attention to mere facts of government
9. Material organized about live problems on a level with the ability of children. National history broken up into lengthened periods for study
10. Selection of those objective facts which should be quite generally known

V. A moral code for school children. A "Moral Code for Youth" was made public by *Collier's Magazine* some time ago. By September, 1929, over 300,000 copies had been distributed. The code, which, according to *Collier's*, grew out of a canvass of representatives of the largest religious denominations, and educational, industrial, civic, and social leaders, is as follows:

If I want to be a happy, useful citizen, I must have:

Courage and Hope. I must be brave. This means I must be brave enough and strong enough to control what I think, and

what I say, and what I do, and I must always be hopeful because hope is power for improvement.

Wisdom. I must act wisely. In school, at home, playing, working, reading, or talking, I must learn how to choose the good and how to avoid the bad.

Industry and Good Habits. I must make my character strong. My character is what I am, if not in the eyes of others, then in the eyes of my own conscience. Good thoughts in my mind will keep out bad thoughts. When I am busy doing good I shall have no time to do evil. I can build my character by training myself in good habits.

Knowledge and Usefulness. I must make my mind strong. The better I know myself, my fellows, and the world about me, the happier and more useful I shall be. I must always welcome useful knowledge in school, at home, everywhere.

Truth and Honesty. I must be truthful and honest. I must know what is true in order to do what is right; I must tell the truth without fear. I must be honest in all my dealings and in all my thoughts. Unless I am honest I cannot have self-respect.

Healthfulness and Cleanliness. I must make my body strong. My eyes, my teeth, my heart, my whole body must be healthy so that my mind can work properly. I must keep physically and morally clean.

Helpfulness and Unselfishness. I must use my strength to help others who need help. If I am strong I can help others, I can be kind, I can forgive those who hurt me, and I can help and protect the weak, the suffering, the young and the old, the dumb animals.

Charity. I must love. I must love God, who created not only this earth, but also all men of all races, nations, and creeds, who are my brothers. I must love my parents, my home, my neighbors, my country, and be loyal to all these.

Humility and Reverence. I must know that there are always more things to learn. What I may know is small compared to what can be known. I must respect all who have more wisdom than I, and have reverence for all that is good. And I must know how and whom to obey.

Faith and Responsibility. I must do all these things because I am accountable to God and to humanity for how I live and how I can help my fellows, and for the extent to which my fellows may trust and depend upon me.

VI. The Young Citizens' League of South Dakota. In April, 1927, there was held in Pierre, South Dakota, the first state convention of boys and girls ever called together in the United States in the interests of better citizenship through participation and federation. This convention was attended by 131 pupil delegates — boys and girls from the third to the eighth grades. Many of the children appeared upon the two-day program, and also the mayor of Pierre, the Governor of the State, the State Superintendent of Schools, State Commander of the American Legion, and a United States Senator. The Governor held a reception for the delegates.

The Young Citizens' League was started in South Dakota in 1912 by Mr. M. M. Guhin, who was at that time a county superintendent. It is now a state organization, sponsored by the State Department of Education. At the session of the State Legislature in June, 1927, the sum of $10,000 was appropriated to carry on the work of the League. This is probably the first act of the kind in the history of America. In 1925 the legislature passed a mandatory law establishing *mock* elections for the benefit of school children to be held at the same time as the regular state elections. Sample ballots are furnished through the counties.

In 1925–26 there were 1662 league organizations, while in 1926–27 the number had increased to 3415 and the membership had grown from 27,983 to 60,092. During the first year of the state organization the children planted 3000 trees, and during the second 21,858 trees. In 1926–27 the

major project was the beautifying of school grounds and during the school year, 1927–28, it had to do with the improvement of school libraries. The active committees of the various leagues are concerned with such practical matters as health and sanitation, physical training, patriotism, cleanliness, and order and courtesy.

The avowed purpose of the League is "to enable each boy and girl to love and serve his country better and to become strong of mind and body." The motto is: "Help Uncle Sam, one another, our school, and our community." The League pledge is as follows: "I hereby pledge my active devotion to my country by a study of its ideals and by a constant interest in the general welfare of my state and nation. I shall strive to do something each day to improve the standards of my school and community, and thereby endeavor to promote better citizenship." Teachers who are especially interested should write to State Superintendent of Public Instruction, E. C. Griffen, the state president, or to D. C. Mills, Pierre, South Dakota, the state executive secretary. A good account of the Young Citizens' League was given in the December, 1927, number of *The Journal of the National Education Association.*

During 1929, 10,062 pupils served as president; 9844 served as vice president; 9501 served as secretary; 9065 served as treasurer. The major project in 1929 was music appreciation. There are 2432 musical instruments in the schools. During the year the leagues spent $30,546.16 for pianos, organs, phonographs, records, music, pictures, playground equipment, flags, books, hot-lunch equipment, trees and shrubs, and for miscellaneous purposes.

VII. *Five-Point* plan for character education. Teachers who are interested in moral training should write to the Character Education Institution, Chevy Chase, Washington,

D. C., for the circular which explains the "five-point" plan. The outline of the points is as follows:

1. Classroom organization (moral leadership)	20%
2. Children's morality code (wisdom)	10%
(This is printed in the appendix of this book.)	
3. Character projects (habits)	30%
4. Character motives and personal influence (guidance)	30%
5. Character charts and school records (knowledge of results)	10%
Total	100%

Lack of space makes it possible to illustrate only the third point by calling attention to:

The Home Chores Character Project

First. Give each child a letter-size sheet of writing paper.

Second. Have each child print on the left upper corner the words *Home chores.*

Third. On the right upper, the words *Well and willingly.*

Fourth. Have the children rule the paper thus: (1) Leave a column one inch wide on the left for a list of "home chores" which they will do "well and willingly"; (2) print on the top line the days of the week, and draw perpendicular lines between the days; (3) draw horizontal lines between the chores, making a checkerboard record.

Fifth. Each child is to choose a few home chores which he will do well and willingly as an experiment of coöperation in making home successful, and print them in the chores column.

Sixth. At the opening of the classroom work each day, each child checks his or her home chores; *Yes* means "I did it well and willingly"; *N. N.* means "It was not necessary to do it"; *No* means "I failed in that chore that day."

Seventh. The *No's* are to be numbered No 1, No 2, No 3, etc., and at the bottom of the sheet an explanation of each *No* must be written.

Eighth. At the end of the week these "Home Chores Records" are gathered up by the *Judge*, as an official of UNCLE SAM'S BOYS AND GIRLS CLUB, and at the following meeting the Judge makes a report on the success of the members in doing home chores well and willingly. One approval is given for each success, and one disapproval for each *No* which the Judge considers without good excuse, these to be marked on the record by the Judge.

Ninth. This project is to be repeated at intervals to fix the habit of coöperation in making home successful. A new list of "chores" can be chosen by those who have succeeded in making a habit of the first list.

Tenth. The character-project reports are kept by the teacher and associated with the "character charts" as part of the child's character development record.

The teacher will carry out various personal projects, according to her best judgment, as a means of influencing individual boys and girls to overcome bad habits and to develop virtues in which they may be weak.

The above plan, which is taken from the circulars for 1927, is proposed by the Character Education Institution for trial and experiment. It is in line with the idea that character is developed largely by specific reactions to definite situations, during which habits are built up. Some teachers will be able to use the five-point plan successfully and others will fail and probably should not even make the attempt. Success will be determined by the teacher's own character and personality. Teachers who possess the necessary qualities of leadership should give this method an honest trial.

VIII. ***The Road to Citizenship.*** This is the title of a very suggestive and useful little book written by Frances Ross

Dearborn, professor of primary education in the Indiana State Normal School, Terre Haute, and published in 1928 by Ginn and Company. In her introduction[1] the author states that " the main objectives in the teaching of citizenship in the elementary grades should be: (1) To give children an idea of what is meant by citizenship. (2) To teach children to apply these meanings in daily life. (3) To help children initiate acts which will work for the betterment of the group. (4) To improve the child's ability to analyze and to judge himself fairly." Then the author continues: " In the beginning of conduct procedures, children need to learn what we mean by such terms as citizenship, conduct, morals, manners, and the like. This book is intended to give children some clear notions regarding the common expressions heard in connection with conduct situations. It is also designed to build up definite conduct impressions and concepts just as concepts must be built up in geography, history, and arithmetic. Such terms as ' being helpful,' ' not bothering,' ' stopping to think,' ' making too much noise,' have a much more limited and more uncertain meaning to children than to adults." — " Such details as are inserted in the stories of this book have been directed toward the building up of the desired conduct picture plus the right emotional attitude toward that picture. Most of the stories require not merely a conduct decision, but they also call for real reflection and discussion."

The book comprises one hundred twenty-six exercises or lessons, and there are many suggestive black-and-white sketches scattered throughout the little volume of about one hundred fifty pages. The following exercise titles will enable the reader to get a better idea of the contents: What Should They Do? — Doing Your Part — What Should Amy

[1] Printed by permission of publishers.

Do? — Signs (several exercises) — A Matching Game — Lucy's Bad Habit — Judging Yourself — Interrupting — A Good Player — Tom Learns a Trick — Questions to Discuss — Can You Do This? — Keeping Good Health — Entertaining a Class — Would the World Be Happier? — How to Place the Flag — Jim Loses His Temper — Can You Be Trusted? — Forming Habits — Who Did It? — The Accident — Choosing a Lunch — A True Story — When to Keep Quiet — Owning Up — George and the Cake — Going off Half-Cocked — Being Introduced — Being Agreeable — Mischievous Nan — Trying Hard — Being Ashamed — The Broken Bat — Sam Wins Out — The New Boy — Keeping a Cool Head — Taking the Biggest — Picking Flowers.

Here is a sample exercise, entitled:

Judging Others

Here are eight children. And here is something that has been said about each child.

Tell why you think these things were said.

The teacher said: "I like to have Ann take up the papers." "Harry is just the boy to do your errand." "Russell does a lot of work without making any fuss." "We are all glad that Sara is in our school."

Fred's father said: "I never worry about Fred when he is playing with Roger."

Rose's mother said: "The baby is as happy with Rose as with me."

The grocer said to Mrs. West: "I like to have your son come for the groceries."

The policeman said to Edward: "I wish all the school children were like you."

No doubt rural teachers who are looking for materials with which to train lower-grade children in right conduct

will here find many useful suggestions and helps. It is because the present writer knows that teachers are often puzzled as to what type of subject matter to use in the development of character traits that he is here glad to refer to *The Road to Citizenship* as one of the best as well as the more recent little books on the subject.

IX. Conscience and judgment. It is probably true that most parents teach their children that there is an inner sentinel which guards our moral life, telling us the difference between right and wrong. This "divine spark," as some speak of it, has been designated as our *conscience*. The psychologist of to-day knows that all of our mental machinery, which includes the moral, is a product of development. The fact of the matter is that all of us must learn to distinguish right from wrong through thousands of specific instances and by the use of our power of judging. Moral judgment, like judgment in all other situations, is built up by practice, which must involve a multitude of situations. To be sure, a normal individual is prompted to do right when he knows what is right and when he senses the social need for doing the right. It cannot be too often repeated, however, that the school, the home, and the church, if these institutions are really to promote moral growth and development, must exercise and guide both conscience and moral judgment by offering suitable occasions or situations for moral action, and also by stimulating and encouraging suitable responses.

X. Effect of bodily conditions. Teachers and all others who have to do with the education of children should appreciate the fact that the physical body is the material mechanism through which all mental, moral, and spiritual activities must necessarily function. Whether we like it or not, we must realize that we are subject to the physical and biological

laws governing the natural world, and that even the highest forms of spiritual life must express themselves through and by means of the nervous system. This physical machinery depends for its normal working upon a continuous supply of nutrients through the blood stream. If a child is anæmic because of lack of proper food materials, including mineral salts and vitamins, it is too much to expect such a child to have a normal mental or moral life. There are thousands of pupils in the public schools to-day who are a source of trouble to their teachers and who need a physician or a course of square meals much more than they need punishment. One bad boy told of a breakfast of beer and white bread. Who can blame him for his badness? Some day we shall give far more attention to the physical than now, for then we shall see that the finest flowering of the moral virtues is dependent upon the normal working of the bodily functions.

XI. Effective but unconscious influence. In every good school there are many more or less subtle, unconscious forces which are operating to change the child's ideas, habits, and attitudes, and thus his moral life. The teacher herself, as an example, is a constant power for either good or evil. Children are prone to imitate the teacher in all sorts of ways. If the teacher has a high regard for truth, which shows itself in her living as well as in her words, the child will catch such a spirit and be greatly helped in this way. If a teacher trifles with her own moral standards, if she indulges in little white lies, for example, she may think she is "getting by" with the children, but sooner or later they will find her out and their own moral judgment will surely be warped by such personal contacts. The daily work of the school and particularly the emotional atmosphere in and through which this work is done either lifts pupils to higher levels of moral living or else pulls them down. Attitudes and ideals are

tremendously important elements of the general outcome, and though they may be only by-factors in teaching and management, they have large influence in the molding of character. A morally sensitive teacher is always anxious about the spirit of her school.

XII. Shall we give direct moral instruction? Some school people and moral reformers have placed great stress upon moral lessons and codes, and many systems of the moral virtues have been worked out. We shall never know the enormous waste of time and energy which such forms of instruction have entailed. Some direct instruction, particularly with the older pupils, probably produces results in building up ideals, attitudes, appreciations, and the like. But if we stop to think, we readily see that real moral fiber is formed only through specific acts of conduct. We cannot teach kindness or courage in the abstract or as a general virtue. If one is to become a courageous individual, he must do more than read dissertations or stories relating to courage. Courage is developed only by persistent daily acts of courage. Courageous character is the result of courageous conduct, and such conduct is developed only by courageous reaction to specific situations. So-called character building in the past has often been wholly fruitless, or worse, because it has been nothing more than the presentation of mere abstract, general ideas entirely divorced from real living. In general, we may say that moral lessons are only good when they are made to function in reactions to real specific situations. The moral value of the Sunday school, as of the regular public school, comes often from the example of the teacher, who is able both by precept and example to instigate actual moral conduct on the part of her pupils.

XIII. Coercion *vs.* freedom. We are free moral agents only when the thing we ought to do is the thing we want to

do. With small children the development of desirable responses through direct habituation is doubtless the only method of procedure, for a time at least. But, even with kindergarten children, some thinking in moral situations is entirely possible. The teacher should early give children a chance to choose for themselves and should provide opportunities for the making of specific moral choices. The more intelligent a teacher is and the better she understands the true nature of moral action, the more inclined she is to see to it that conduct is the result of right and proper attitudes and feelings, which always involve right thinking, also. The coarse-grained teacher or mother often resorts to force and compulsion in order to get children to conform. Such methods will never prepare children for coöperating citizenship in a free democracy. Coercion and force as temporary expedients are necessary, but our chief reliance should be upon the development of correct motives. As a man thinketh in his heart, so is he. Let us concentrate upon *right aims and ideals of action.*

XIV. Influence of play. Teachers and parents do not, as a rule, realize the importance of play in the building of character. It is in the spontaneous play of children that we find the virtues and the vices in action. The give-and-take of the playground is a great developer of character. Here it is that the child learns how to take defeat, for better or for worse, so far as his character is concerned. Children should be taught to take their share of the knocks and pains of the game. They should be made to understand that it is a fine thing to be a loser who does not whine and complain. In every school there are children who need to be practiced in playing fair. Most schools have at least one bully and most schools have one or more soft individuals whose fond mothers have brought them up to shun hardship and hard knocks of

any kind. Organized play can do even more than the civics or citizenship class to teach the real meaning of coöperation, and thus to prepare for actual civic participation in the community. Play can build up or it can break down character, all depending on the way it is conducted. It is, therefore, of the greatest importance that there should be some intelligent supervision. The school must stand for virile, upstanding citizenship which will withstand the hardships of life.

XV. Free social exchange of ideas. In the building of character and the development of citizenship the wise teacher sees the great value of socialized discussion in which moral issues are freely considered *pro* and *con*. Johnny will never develop moral judgment unless he is given repeated opportunity for the passing of judgment in concrete situations. Children should be given daily practice in the forming and the careful expression of individual opinion based upon some kind of evidence. One of the great values of the socialized recitation is the opportunity it offers the child actually to give expression to his real convictions. If the socialized procedure is used, more and more the child will see the need for his taking part. He will develop initiative and a sense of personal responsibility which will have much to do with his success in life. A right-minded teacher does not impose her ideas on the children, but rather through her attitude of reasonable-mindedness she cultivates a like quality in her boys and girls. The school can do no greater thing than to train children to be open-minded and to consult reason rather than passion and prejudice.

XVI. Futility of idle promises. A promise should be morally binding on the one who makes it; if a teacher does not want to break down a child's character, she will be very careful not to exact promises where there is even a slight

chance of failure to keep the agreement. Some teachers and parents seem to show but little conception of the bearing of this problem upon the development of the child's mind and character. A New Year's resolution, or a resolution made at any other time, may be a means of growth in personality or it may be only a source of weakness, as it certainly will be if it is impossible of accomplishment. A resolution is a promise to oneself, and while it may be better to have some unrealized resolutions than never to have any, still a person good at resolving is usually good for nothing else. It is probably better to have "loved and lost than never to have loved at all," but doubtless resolutions and promises are hardly in this category of the affections. Promises that are to be kept several hours or days in the future are really dangerous promises. There is great likelihood that memory or inclination will fail and thus another weak link will be put into the chain of character. With older children there may safely be an interval between the order and the execution, but here the fact of individual differences needs also to be considered. Look out for unwise promises unless you wish the child to lose respect for you and for himself. The effect on character of continually not doing what our sense of right tells us to do is disastrous, and anyone who goes about in such a state of mind can never be truly efficient or happy.

XVII. How teachers break down character. Very likely no teacher would consciously and voluntarily wish to do anything to injure a child's character, but nevertheless such an outcome may result from unwise management and teaching, whether deliberate or otherwise. If a teacher is careless in her assignments, she will train children in loose and slovenly preparation. If she does not call for assigned work, or if she accepts poorly prepared work day after day, she is surely

habituating her pupils in weak and uncertain citizenship. When a teacher winks at the truth or is satisfied with half-truths, she is doing her best to send the child out with most inadequate preparation for the duties of life. In the teaching of arithmetic, for example, anything less than 100% accuracy may give the child wrong notions and get him ready for all sorts of difficulties when he meets the "hard, cold" world. If the work of the recitation is soft and wishy-washy instead of virile and exacting, the child will develop the characteristics of a jellyfish instead of the up-standing attributes of a vertebrate. In management and discipline, too, the teacher will do much to injure the child's character if such management is wabbly and intermittent. The teacher with a clear eye and mind and a steady hand, whose requirements are reasonable and sure, will render children a service in this way that is beyond all calculation, and future generations will call such a teacher indeed blessed.

XVIII. Suggestion — good and bad. *Suggestion* is operating continuously in every schoolroom. By suggestion we mean the presentation or insinuation of an idea, thought, or impulse indirectly and unconsciously to the mind. This insinuation may be of the most subtle sort through any external agent, such as the words, tones, looks, etc., of any person whatsoever. Children are very impressionable and their characters are being continually molded by the most unsuspected and hidden of influences. The child will be affected by the room itself, by the decorations, the pictures, the blackboards, and all the physical environment of the room. How important that the room be decorated in appropriate tones of color! The child will be affected by the teacher's unspoken words, by her mannerisms, by her dress, by her general habit of mind. The school child is exceedingly susceptible to ideas and emotions, however subtly

they may be presented to the mind. In fact, insinuated ideas often have greater force than those presented directly. Every teacher should realize the great force of suggestion in molding character, for such realization may result in greater care relative to the complex influence of the physical, mental, and moral environment of the school upon the mind, heart, and character of the child.

XIX. Thin-skinned and thick-skinned individuals. A weak, nervous, sensitive child needs a treatment different from that of the strong, phlegmatic, thick-skinned individual. Just a word to the quick-responding little girl may be entirely adequate in securing desired results in conduct; but it may be that the sluggish, slow-witted, possibly stubborn boy will require drastic treatment, perhaps on the low level of physical appeal. In this great business of character formation a good rule is to appeal to every child on as high a level of motivation as possible, and to make an effort constantly to raise the level. Character is not made in a day, a week, or a month. The teacher will do well to study her individual pupils, making as sincere an effort to diagnose each case and to apply suitable remedies in the field of character development as in the realm of definite subject-matter instruction. Usually it will be found that the thick-skinned individual in the moral sphere is likely to be rather obtuse also in the realm of the intellectual. There are many bright wrong-doers, however, and it takes a keen mind to be a really first-class incorrigible.

XX. Is pupil self-government justifiable? It may be said at once, and emphatically, that the extreme forms of pupil self-government, which at one time had considerable vogue in various parts of the United States, are entirely unsuited to rural school conditions; and it is particularly true that the rural teachers of to-day, many of them imma-

ture and inexperienced, are wholly unable to put into practice any such radical plans or systems. It is likewise true, however, that any teacher of sufficient personality is able to make use of a modified honor and committee system with much success and decided benefit to the children in the way of moral training and character building. Pupils in rural schools should be trusted increasingly in accordance with their individual moral power and development. They should also be trained to assist the teacher in carrying on the work of the school, and in attending daily to the various necessary housekeeping duties. Children can also be habituated and guided through dramatization of the work of public officials, such, for example, as the president's cabinet; and they may likewise secure valuable character and citizenship development through the hot-lunch project and the school society, or Little Citizens' League, as it is called in some states.

XXI. The Minneapolis experiment.[1] For several years Mrs. Agness Boysen, principal of the Lyndale School, Minneapolis, and her associate teachers have been carrying out a plan for character education which has produced undoubted results and which is very suggestive for other teachers and schools. Essentially, the Boysen plan or system consists in the stressing of vital character or personality traits rather than mere mastery of subject matter. In a school of about one thousand boys and girls in the first six grades, everyone — principal, some twenty teachers, and the pupils themselves — enthusiastically concentrates upon the development of those ideals and habits which make for the greatest social efficiency, and for personal satisfaction and happiness, as well. It is Mrs. Boysen's idea that the school

[1] Permission to quote from *Character Education on a Practical Basis* has been given by F. E. Compton and Company, Chicago.

and the home should coöperate in the work of character education; therefore, from the beginning of the movement conferences with parents, individually and in groups, have been a regular part of the general procedure.

The character traits shown on the pupil's report and promotion card are as follows: reliability, obedience, industry, self-control, social attitudes, judgment, punctuality, initiative, personal habits, thrift, and adjustment. On one side of the card is the report for the first semester and on the other side for the second semester. In marking, five letters are used — *A*, very good; *B*, good; *C*, fair; *D*, poor; *F*, very poor. At the bottom of each side of the card is found this statement: "Parents are cordially invited to confer with the teacher and the principal."

Each child is provided with a twelve-page booklet entitled *A Key to Success*, in which ten traits are analyzed by the use of personal affirmative statements. For example, the page devoted to *self-control* comprises the following: "I must always try to be pleasant and courteous no matter what the situation is. I must especially try to be pleasant when corrected. I must never lose my temper. I must always try to be patient. I must not cry or whine over disappointments, but be reasonable. I must try to be sensible in my play, having a good time, but not at the expense of others. I must always play fair, I must be a good loser. I must adapt myself to new situations quickly and pleasantly. I must never allow myself to use improper language. I must avoid unnecessary talking in the classroom as it disturbs my companions."

Mrs. Boysen states that "when a boy gets an *F* in arithmetic, his father regrets it, but he is too busy to go to school to locate the difficulty. But when a boy gets an *F* in reliability, the entire family usually arrives. That was exactly what we

desired. We met many parents whom we had never seen before, and our contact with them proved to be most valuable." Mrs. Boysen then cites several instances of helpful interviews with parents. Of course supervisors and teachers will wish to know whether the emphasis on character traits did not cause scholarship to be neglected and to deteriorate. Quite the contrary, however, for at the close of the first semester of the experiment it was found that, by stressing industry and other related traits, the academic marks were raised, markedly so in many cases. "We gave the children the city-wide achievement tests and the records showed a good growth over past years. We knew that eventually growth in character would promote growth in scholarship, but we had not expected such immediate returns. We have maintained our place in the city in scholarship since that first year. It is about a good average. We desire no more."

Mrs. Boysen well says that "Character training is not an uttering of platitudes, not preaching, not philosophy. It is providing for the child *many real experiences* through which he can pass in order to develop character. In fact, it is just allowing the child to live naturally, teaching him to think for himself, not to accept false standards, and to gain his own conception of right and wrong." Teachers who are interested should write to F. E. Compton and Company, Compton Building, 1000 N. Dearborn Street, Chicago, for the very interesting and suggestive 34-page booklet by Mrs. Boysen, entitled *Character Education on a Practical Basis*. This may cost twenty-five cents, but it is worth many times that amount. There is at the present time a decided tendency among school people to emphasize personality traits. The reader should examine, in this connection, the reports to parents in the chapter on records and reports.

Class Discussion Questions

1. Why should character training be one of the great aims of the school?
2. How are character and conduct related?
3. Why is the application of the *S-R* formula so fundamental in character training? If you cannot or should not try to teach character directly, what can you do?
4. Does your conscience tell you what is right and wrong? How is moral judgment related to conscience?
5. How is a wise selection of good food for children related to their growth in moral character?
6. Illustrate the fact that a high-grade picture has a distinct moral influence.
7. Of what value is a book of moral lessons?
8. How shall a teacher or parent know when to force a child to good behavior and when to let him choose for himself?
9. Should the teacher play ball with the children? Why?
10. Should pupils be permitted to discuss moral situations and issues? Why?
11. What danger lies in promises?
12. What is the moral effect of teaching things that are not so — in the grammar class, for example?
13. Specify several ways in which you will wish to place children on their honor in your school.
14. Why do set, formal lessons in manners and morals have so little value, as a rule? Would you omit them entirely?
15. Comment on the Moral Code for Youth. Do you feel that the essentials have been selected for stressing?

Useful Supplementary Readings

1. Bagley, W. C., and Keith, J. A. H. — *An Introduction to Teaching;* The Macmillan Company. 1924.
2. Bryant, S. C. — *I Am an American;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1918.

3. *Boy Scouts of America.* (Ask the local scout master for boy scout literature or write direct to New York City.)

4. Boysen, Agness — *Character Education on a Practical Basis;* F. E. Compton and Company. 1929.

5. *Boys' Life; the Boy Scout Magazine.* (Price, $2.00.)

6. Cabot, E. L. — *Ethics for Children; a Guide for Teachers and Parents;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1910.

7. Cabot, E. L., Andrews, F. F., and Others. — *A Course in Citizenship;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1914.

8. *Camp Fire Girls and Girl Scouts.* (Ask local leaders, your local librarian, or write to your state department of education.)

9. *Character Education.* Report of the Committee on Character Education of the National Education Association. 1926. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

10. Character Education Institution — *Character Education Methods* (*The Iowa Plan*); The National Capital Press. 1922.

11. Charters, W. W. — *The Teaching of Ideals;* The Macmillan Company. 1927.

12. Hillegas, M. B., Briggs, T. H., and Sixty Other Educators. — *The Classroom Teacher;* The Classroom Teacher, Inc. 1928. Twelve volumes, giving discussions on all phases of the work of teaching — a mine of the most scientific, up-to-date, and useful material on teaching procedures.

13. Deans of Girls of Chicago High Schools — *Manners and Conduct in School and Out;* Allyn and Bacon. 1921.

14. Dearborn, Frances Ross — *The Road to Citizenship;* Ginn and Company. 1928.

15. Dewey, Julia M. — *Lessons on Manners;* Noble Publishing Company. 1925.

16. Dewey, Julia M. — *Lessons on Morals;* Noble Publishing Company. 1899.

17. Dunn, A. W. — *Community Civics and Rural Life;* D. C. Heath and Company. 1920.

18. Engleman, J. O. — *Moral Education in School and Home;* Benj. H. Sanborn and Company. 1919.

19. Field, J., and Nearing, S. — *Community Civics;* The Macmillan Company. 1916.

20. Fryer, J. E. — *Community Interest and Public Spirit;* The John C. Winston Company. 1919.

21. Harris, H. M. — *Lessons in Civics for the Six Elementary Grades;* Bureau of Education. 1920. (Price, 15¢.)

22. Hill, Mabel. — *The Teaching of Civics;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1914.

23. Hill, M., and Davis, P. — *Civics for New Americans;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1915.

24. Hutchins, W. J. — *Children's Code of Morals for Elementary Schools;* National Capital Press. 1916.

25. Hyde, M. K. — *Girls' Book of the Red Cross;* T. Y. Crowell Company. 1919.

26. *Junior Red Cross News.* Washington, D. C. (50¢ a year.)

27. Kilpatrick, W. H. — *Foundations of Method;* The Macmillan Company. 1925.

28. Los Angeles City School District — *Character and Conduct;* School Publication No. 60. September, 1923.

29. Marden, O. S. — *Success;* W. A. Wilde Company. 1897.

30. Marden, O. S. — *Training for Efficiency;* T. Y. Crowell Company. 1913.

31. Martin, Herbert — *Formative Factors in Character;* Longmans, Green and Company. 1925.

32. Marwick, W. F., and Smith, W. A. — *The True Citizen: How to Become One;* American Book Company. 1900.

33. Maryland State Board of Education — *Maryland School Bulletin: The Teaching of Citizenship in the Elementary Schools.* 1926.

34. McNaught, Margaret S. — *Training in Courtesy;* Bureau of Education. 1918. (Price, 15¢.)

35. Moore, Clyde B. — *Citizenship through Education;* American Book Company. 1929.

36. Morton, G. F. — *Childhood Fears;* The Macmillan Company. 1925.

37. Myers, G. C. — *The Learner and His Attitude;* Benj. H. Sanborn and Company. 1925.

38. Neuberg, M. J. — *Right Living: A Discussion Course for Boys and Girls;* The University of Chicago Press. 1926.

39. Robbins, Charles L. — *The Will to Work — A Study in Character Education;* Row, Peterson and Company. 1928.

40. Russell, J. E. — "Scouting Education"; Teachers' College Record. January, 1917.

41. Schauffler, H. P. — *Adventures in Habit Craft;* The Macmillan Company. 1927.

42. Sears, J. B. — *Classroom Management and Control;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1918.

43. Sharp, F. C. — *Education for Character;* The Bobbs-Merrill Company. 1917.

44. Sisson, E. O. — *The Essentials of Character;* The Macmillan Company. 1910.

45. Sneath, E. H., and Hodges, G. — *Moral Training in the School and Home;* The Macmillan Company. 1914.

46. Sneath, E. H., Hodges, G., and Stevens, E. L. — *The Golden Rule Series;* The Macmillan Company. 1915.

47. State Department of Public Instruction of Oregon — *Moral Instruction in the Public Schools through the Use of the Story.* 1923.

48. Strayer, G. D., and Englehardt, N. L. — *The Classroom Teacher;* American Book Company. 1920.

49. Taylor, C. K. — *Character Development;* The John C. Winston Company. 1913.

50. *The Teaching of Community Civics;* Bureau of Education, Washinton, D. C. 1915. (Price, 10¢.)

51. Thorndike, E. L. — *Education;* The Macmillan Company. 1912.

52. Thorndike, E. L. — *The Principles of Teaching;* A. G. Seiler. 1906.

53. *Training for Citizenship;* Department of Public Education, Michigan. 1922.

54. Utah Department of Public Instruction — *Char-*

acter Education Supplement to the Utah State Course of Study for Elementary and High Schools. 1925.

55. Yocum, A. D. — "An Analysis of Moral Qualities and Activities"; *School and Society.* February 17, 1923.

Sources of Information

Teachers may obtain useful materials and information relating to character education and training for citizenship by writing to the following associations and organizations:

1. American School Citizenship League, Boston, Mass.
2. *Child Life,* a magazine published by Rand, McNally and Company, Chicago, contains helps relative to the organization of Good Citizens' Leagues.
3. Collier's Magazine, New York City. Write to this magazine — P. F. Collier & Son Company — for free copies of the Moral Code for Youth.
4. Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.
5. Journal of Education — New England Publishing Company, Boston, has been printing some helpful Character Chats by Joseph B. Egan during the years 1928, 1929, and 1930.
6. National Child Welfare Association, New York City.
7. National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Washington, D. C.
8. National Education Association of the United States, Washington, D. C.
9. National Honesty Bureau, 115 Broadway, New York City. Write to them about the *Honesty Book.*
10. National Security League, New York City, N. Y.
11. The Character Education Institution, Washington, D. C.

Note: Excellent bibliographies may be secured from the Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., and from the National Education Association. *Bulletin, 1926, No. 7,* Bureau of Education, contains extensive bibliographies. This bulletin costs 15¢. Write to Superintendent of Documents. Teachers who are

especially interested in character education should write to the *Journal of Education*, Boston, Mass., for information relative to a series of practical character discussions presented each week by Joseph B. Egan. These articles have been running for over two years in Dr. Winship's *Journal*.

CHAPTER II

PERSONAL INFLUENCE IN DISCIPLINE

Certain present-day writers would have us believe that the problem of discipline no longer exists in rural schools; or if there is difficulty in this particular, they say, it is not a question to be given serious consideration. These people seem to think that what teachers need chiefly is instruction in the use of teaching procedures. Repeated observation and experience of the better class of rural school supervisors prove, however, that while the field of class and individual teaching needs constant attention, there also is the ever-present need for taking note of conduct, control, and the development of all those character qualities which go to make up the good citizen. Doubtless the teaching and the control of pupils are two vitally related activities of the teacher. Other things being equal, that teacher will succeed best in discipline who is also skillful in teaching; and many a school has gone to pieces because of poor teaching. Those teachers who have the essential qualities of personality, and who at the same time are able to use correct teaching procedures, are the teachers who are most successful in any type of school — rural or urban. It is because the writer of this book believes that teachers should give thought to problems of order that this chapter was written.

I. Importance of discipline. Doctor Winship in his *Journal of Education* once wrote as follows relative to the importance of discipline: "No other phase of school life and work is so difficult or so important as discipline.

Nothing else has so large an influence on what the children learn, or upon their characters. Nothing else has such a sway over the æsthetic or the ethical tone of the children." No thinking person can question the significance of discipline or of its bearing upon the citizenship of to-morrow. The control of objectives and practices demands much thought and effort if the teacher is to be genuinely successful.

II. Meanings differentiated.[1] Discipline means training to act in accordance with established rules; accustoming to systematic and regular action. It is subjection to rule, submission to order and control; it is habit of obedience. It is thus seen that control involves moral guidance and that this guidance implies obedience to recognized authority. A school is only one in name unless the children are habituated in right moral responses. How this disciplinary obedience is to be secured is another question — a problem of ways and means.

Influence is the act, or process, or the power of producing an effect without apparent force or direct authority. Influence is the quiet, gradual exertion of power, often arising from strength of mind, force of character, position, and the like. A moral influence is an influence acting through or upon the sense of right; it is an appeal to one's ideas of right and wrong. Authority, on the other hand, implies the formal, legal, or overt exercise of power, or the right to such exercise, by virtue of some office, jurisdiction, or special title to respect or obedience. A moral influence is exerted upon a child when he is perhaps least aware of it. There is a wholesome moral influence in the emotional atmosphere of any good school taught by a teacher who

[1] The author is indebted to *The International* for several of these discriminations which have not been indicated as direct quotations.

is steadfast in character, who has a genuine, decided personality, and who unselfishly desires the best welfare of each child.

III. Influence *vs.* authority. "Authority is ultimately based on force, law, or prescriptive right; so that, while it may be effective to secure obedience, it does not necessarily produce conviction or change of heart" . . . "The nature of authority is earliest learned, and that too often, in the form of force. Authority must be put in its reasonable form as soon as possible. Children must be taught whom to obey and why. Otherwise obedience may become a vice." Influence, then, is a term which may be applied to all methods of securing the action or characteristics desired of pupils, other than coercion. It includes example and persuasion. "Influence appeals to the natural motives of a child; to notions in his own mind. It tends to change the child's action through the working of his own thought, and so gradually produces a change in his character." It follows that a teacher should rely more and more on his influence and less and less on his authority, always trying example and persuasion first. The weaker the teacher the more inclined he is to rely on authority.

IV. True obedience. The writer believes that children need to become habituated in reasonable and ready response to properly constituted authority. In our day especially, when it seems as though the home influence is becoming weaker and weaker, there is greater need than ever for the teacher to secure true, willing obedience, to teach reverence for law, and to do all in her power to check any spirit of lawlessness which may show itself. The kind of obedience in any school is a matter of the utmost importance. No person is truly free until he desires to do that which he ought to do. It seems highly important to give pupils suitable

opportunity for thinking about, and adequate exercise in thinking and in passing judgment upon, moral questions; to make them sensitive in matters of right and wrong; and to go behind the act to the desire or motive which lies back of it and prompts it. The motive is the vital matter to get at, as best we can. A good teacher is always anxious about the ultimate, inner reasons for any pupil's conduct.

V. Existing conditions and needs. The chief moral influence of the school is undoubtedly the teacher herself, and the power of the teacher's personality should be emphasized. The situation in our schools to-day is somewhat different from what it was a generation ago. There are elements in the problem of control which did not exist thirty to fifty years ago. Human nature remains unchanged — the human nature of the teacher and the human nature of the pupil. However, social ideals are changing. In some ways we are becoming more democratic; in other ways aristocratic tendencies are showing themselves in more or less obnoxious forms. The aristocracy of wealth is here to stay, and it will take all of the socializing and democratic forces of the schools to even partly counteract any evils this tendency may develop.

The spirit of the school has changed. The relation between pupil and teacher is not what it was some decades ago. Friendly coöperation is largely taking the place of coercion. Teacher and pupil are working together hand in hand instead of arraying themselves against each other. With the present immaturity and inexperience of many country teachers, however, there is no doubt at all about the need both for better control in our schools and for higher ideals of what constitutes true moral guidance.

VI. Rural teacher situation. In some respects the rural

teacher is confronted with a special problem of discipline. She has some opportunities and advantages as compared with the grade teacher, but in general she is somewhat handicapped. First of all, there is the special problem of the country teacher herself. Every teacher is a problem for herself to solve as best she may. Not a few rural teachers are in country schools rather against their wishes. They do not really love country life; they go back to town at every opportunity, often every day. They are not genuinely in sympathy with country life and people. They do not expect to remain in a country school any longer than is absolutely necessary. They are not happy or contented. Such teachers cannot do good work or exert a beneficial influence upon their pupils. They are quite ignorant of rural life and rural conditions. Worst of all, they do not care to learn. What a travesty on teaching efficiency, for example, is instruction in agriculture by such a teacher! Much is being done in some states to remedy this condition. With the increase of special institutions for the training of rural teachers we are now increasingly providing rural schools with teachers who are especially prepared to do their work well. These young men and women will be possessed of the true spirit of the devoted teacher. Such devotion is a prime prerequisite to effective service.

VII. Pupils differ. This rural teacher, with urban tastes and tendencies, will often have in her school some fifteen to thirty pupil-personality problems, which, in addition to the problem of herself, she must seek to solve. They are all gathered in the proverbial country schoolroom, which is quite likely neither sanitary nor beautiful. The material and physical conditions of good control may thus be lacking. At the lower age limit is perhaps the six-year-old boy; at the other extreme, perchance the sixteen-year-

old girl, with all ages and sizes between. In many country schools there is a mere handful, but we are supposing a reasonable or sufficient number, enough to arouse some real enthusiasm and to offer some competition. Here are these boys and girls, some from well-to-do families, some from very poor families, some from homes with families of the size approaching the Roosevelt ideal, and some where there is only one pampered boy or girl. Some of these children are naturally selfish and egotistic, with unlovable dispositions. Others may have been born and reared fortunately where conditions produce temperaments of a happier sort. Most of these children have superfluous nervous energy which demands outlet and expression, and which the teacher, moreover, is in duty bound to guide into wholesome and beneficent channels. Some of these children, who are to become the participating citizens of to-morrow, are morally defective. There is a personality twist and often a mental deficiency which may cause the boy or girl many a hard battle, perhaps making life difficult and unpleasant for both the individual and his associates.

VIII. Parents constitute a problem. There is the problem also of the parent — a problem not by any means insignificant, or at all to be ignored. Many of the teacher's troubles in discipline would be eliminated were the home influence of the right sort and were there more complete coöperation between school and home. Some parents are always helpful; they do some thinking; they require obedience at home. They know something of the difficulties of the schoolroom, and they do not condemn the teacher without any basis of evidence. "If parents could realize what a vital share they have in school government, if they could understand that both the teacher and themselves should work in harmony, if they could know how a

lack of intelligent sympathy on their part, when difficulties arise, dishearten the teacher and encourage the children in wrongdoing, it would be a pleasure for them to coöperate with the teacher, and they would then be doing all in their power for the best interests of the children."

IX. Self-control a vital need. In any adequate discussion of teacher influence, the importance of the teacher's character and personality is a matter for thoughtful consideration. As is the teacher so is the school. There is no doubt about the teacher's being the center of the activities of the school. She must take the initiative. Proper control of pupils must be preceded by self-mastery on the part of the teacher. That is, she must be master of her own spirit. Her self-control cannot be of the superficial sort if she is really to win out. She is to control more than mere appearances, external bodily manifestations. She must control her thinking and through her thinking she will indirectly control her feelings, her words, her general conduct. No matter how up-to-date the building and equipment, it still remains true that the essentials of a school are teacher and pupils. The teacher teaches all of the time. She teaches in subtle, secret, unconscious ways. Her actions often speak louder than her words. Fortunate is she if her actions square with her words. The following ideas of Annie Payson Call [1] have pertinent application to the life of the teacher. She says:

To most people self-control means the control of appearances and not the control of realities. This is a radical mistake, and must be corrected, if we are to get a clear idea of self-control, and if we are to make a fair start in acquiring it as a permanent habit. . . . I am what I am by virtue of what my mind is, what my will is, and what I am in the resultant combination of my mind

[1] Call, Annie Payson — *The Freedom of Life;* Little, Brown and Company.

and my will; I am not necessarily what I appear from the outside. . . . If a man is ugly to me and I want to knock him down, and refrain from doing so simply because it would not appear well, and is not the habit of the people about me, my desire to knock him down is still a part of myself, and I have not controlled myself until I am absolutely free from that interior desire. So long as I am in hatred to another, I am in bondage to my hatred.

X. Don't resist the pupil. There is much in the life of the teacher to cause irritability, anger, and worry, and the young teacher is especially liable to succumb to these emotions at times and thus to decrease her efficiency and actually to give direct instruction in immoral responses. Miss Call says:

Many people weaken their powers of service by their own indignation, when, if they would cease their excited resistance, they would see clearly how to remedy the wrong that arouses their antagonism. . . . Action, when accompanied by personal resistance, however effective it may seem, does not begin to have the power that can come from action without such resistance. . . . As, for instance, when we have to train a child with a perverse will, if we quietly assert what is right to the child, and insist upon obedience without the slightest antagonistic feeling to the child's naughtiness, we accomplish much more toward strengthening the character of the child than if we try to enforce our idea by the use of our personal will, which is filled with resistance toward the child's obstinacy.

Teachers would do well to read some of the books by this wise and helpful writer, such as *Power through Repose*, *As a Matter of Course*, *The Freedom of Life*, *Every Day Living*, *Nerves and Common Sense*. Her philosophy is sound and fundamental. Two books by Doctor Luther Halsey Gulick are also useful in this connection: *The Efficient Life* and *Mind and Work*. Every teacher needs

to have a sound philosophy of life and she needs to become something of a philosopher herself. The reading of such books will aid in making life more effective and more livable for any conscientious teacher.

XI. Influence of effective teaching. A teacher exerts a moral influence by the way in which she presents subject matter. She may teach arithmetic, for example, in either a moral way or in a way calculated to damage the child's character. Arithmetic, as well as almost any other subject, may be taught so as to weaken instead of strengthen the child's power to overcome and to stand morally erect. If the teacher is weak and vacillating in her requirements; if she is satisfied with partial truth; if she accepts definitions only partly learned; if she allows slovenly work; if she is vague, inexact, and indefinite in her directions, and in the results which she expects; then, the whole tone of instruction is consciously or unconsciously shaped to weaken the will and thus to produce flabby and indifferent response to moral appeal. There is a tremendous difference in teachers in just this respect. It is indeed refreshing and inspiring to witness the work of a teacher who means business, who is not satisfied with halfway measures, who believes that the work of the hour is entitled to the best that she is capable of giving and doing. She is naturally sincere and honest. She requires exactness of statement, and she works for right response in bodily ways, also. It is entirely possible for a teacher to teach with so much of vigor and effectiveness as to control, by this means alone, a large and difficult school. On the other hand, many a teacher has met her Waterloo in the classroom during a teaching exercise. Character is shown by actual classroom instruction. The moral influence of clear, concise, accurate thinking is a very great moral influence, indeed.

And hazy, muddy, incoherent thinking often produces disorder and weakens character.

XII. Questions of human relations. Doctor Winship, quoted at the beginning of the chapter, has said in another place that "discipline, ideal or real, is a matter of relations, of the relation of each child to every other child, of each child to his teacher, of all the children to the teacher, of the teacher to each child, individually, to all the children collectively." And then Doctor Winship asks: "How much of your discipline is individual? How much collective? How much arises from friction among the children? How much of the individual discipline springs from some element in the child's disposition? How much from some element in your own disposition? How many of the occasions for discipline arise from the physical condition of the child or children, and how many from your own physical condition?" A severe catarrhal cold may tend strongly, for example, to make a teacher anything but a pleasing moral influence, though she may try particularly hard to keep sweet and good-natured. "How many occasions for discipline arise from unfavorable material conditions? From social conditions? From temperamental causes?" These are searching queries and they are worth serious consideration. They are not idle questions, but rather they go to the bottom of the problem where control conditions actually exist. Teachers need to cultivate the habit of studying underlying conditions and of not resting satisfied with surface views of these human relationships, which are really causes of our failures or of our successes. The problem of relationships is our persistent, daily problem.

XIII. One country teacher's influence. The boy had at least two good teachers — one, "Professor" B., and the other a farmer's daughter of eighteen who taught the country

school in " Deestrick " No. 4, Dundas Township, wherever that may have been. The impress which Miss A. made upon the life and character of the boy was marked. He never forgot the beautiful influence of her personality. Here was indeed a moral force which really counted, and which was a blessing to those boys and girls who were fortunate enough to come within the field of its beneficent influence during this spring and summer term. In the first place, this eighteen-year-old girl had abounding health, largely the result of good heredity and bringing-up; this health had been conserved by close daily contact with the wholesome natural forces of country life. She had not used up her nervous energy in social dissipation or in emotional excess. Her bodily health and strength were a distinct asset, as they always are to any teacher who possesses them. This personal vitality in itself was a moral influence not easy to overestimate. Thrice blessed is the teacher who keeps constantly on hand a surplus of nervous energy, and who, in this way, maintains herself at her best.

In the second place, this young woman was unselfish. She came of a large family, and she had learned the art of living in harmony with folks. No selfish teacher can be truly successful. He who would save his life must lose it. This girl loved children, and she could love even bad boys. Her heart went out to her wayward lad, and he instantly and wholeheartedly responded. Think of the unquestioned moral influence in such a case. She had won her pupil even before the coöperative program of cleaning up the filthy schoolhouse had been completed.

Again, this girl was industrious; she was not at all afraid to work. That picture of her rolling up her sleeves and making other preparations to clean up that dirty room is a rather inspiring vision, and it is no wonder that the pro-

verbially and typically wayward minister's son, at least supposedly so, stood first in open-mouth wonder and then joyfully took hold with all his might to make the coöperative enterprise a success. His association with his teacher that morning before regular school work began settled the matter of control so far as this young chap was concerned. Who will rightly and reverently name the force that brought this boy into line and made him anxious to do his teacher's bidding?

This teacher was likewise resourceful. She studied her children individually and adapted her treatment to each particular case. Her diagnosis was simple and direct, unembarrassed by the fine-spun theories of child study. Following the diagnosis was prompt and effective treatment by means of simple, home-made remedies. Maybe she used a switch that summer; the record does not say whether she did or not. At any rate, she cured incipient restlessness, disorder, and disobedience by simply furnishing interesting occasions for working off the common and natural superabundance of animal spirits. Would that more teachers understood the value of a safety valve and made practical use of this device in preventing disastrous explosions. This teacher probably used the ounce of prevention unconsciously and instinctively, feeling that this was far more efficacious than a ton of cure could be. The writer has known teachers, even college graduates, to watch with apparent indifference the slow gathering of a dark and threatening storm of disorder, apparently making no effort whatever to prevent its breaking or to provide diverting avenues while yet there was time. It was evidently beneath their dignity to nip trouble in the bud. Destroying disciplinary trouble in the egg, to use another figure, is very wise school management. Think of the

amount of energy that is saved in this way for higher and better uses!

There is not space to mention all of this teacher's good qualities; quite likely she had some bad ones, too, like all the rest of us. She had common sense, she loved beauty in nature and sterling worth in human nature; she had not become the victim of pedagogic pedantry. She taught simply and therefore well. Her experience in a normal school had not spoiled her, as no doubt has been the case with not a few young people. She was pleasing in her bearing, fresh and natural, without certain offensive mannerisms of so-called society. Who will have the temerity to say that even this country girl's personal beauty did not have something to do with her winning her pupils? The physical comeliness and personal attractiveness of any rural teacher is certainly not to be ignored in reckoning up the total account of personal influence.

XIV. Value of school system. What a training in good citizenship is wholesome order in a well-conducted school! The knowledge gained from the curriculum is small compared with the character building resulting from a well-organized and wisely administered school. It is not easy to overvalue the corrective influence, the power for good, which is found in the very atmosphere of any school where public sentiment is on the side of true nobility and honor, and where the great majority frown upon evidences of unfairness and injustice. Teachers should understand and appreciate this real force which makes for strong manhood and womanhood and do everything in their power to cherish and stress it in their schools.

XV. Advocates of force. Many people seem wholly unable to understand the power of moral influence in the control of children. Such people are accustomed to think

in terms of force and compulsion rather than in terms of moral suasion and the power of personality. The contagion of character is an influence beyond the ken of those who advocate corporal punishment as the one and only means of managing pupils in school. The following illustrations are presented here to demonstrate in a way the evil of wrong principles and bad advice in the important field of management:

A friendly and well-intentioned doctor and a kind-hearted, sympathetic harness maker advised a young principal in a western state to step into the latter's harness shop the first morning, procure a suitable weapon, and then wade into and clean out the whole bunch of troublesome high-school boys on the first morning. There were a score or more of big and really fine young fellows in this high school of less than one hundred, any one of whom could easily have thrown the new principal out of the window. The Hoosier Schoolmaster's bull-dog tenacity of purpose was adopted as the mastering spirit by the young teacher, as he reports his experience to the writer, and luckily no one was badly injured. Affairs quieted down, those on the black list were enrolled on the side of right and justice, and industry became quite the regular and even popular thing. Then those two genial advisers looked somewhat askance out of the corners of their eyes at this wholly unorthodox way of running a school. However, best of all, it worked, and the eight boys who had been expelled were lined up for graduation. The doctor and the harness maker seemed wholly unable to understand anything but a physical encounter. The principal states that he was truly thankful for his success, and that he prayed for more light, which came by degrees as the days passed by.

A most esteemed friend of the writer some years ago was

a high-minded minister of the gospel, a college man and former successful teacher. He was at that time of muscular build, a football player in college, tipping the beam at nearly 200. (Did his avoirdupois and muscular build have any bearing upon his convictions relative to corporal punishment?) This good man, and he was an exceptionally fine Christian gentleman, used to believe thoroughly that a school could hardly be going right without at least one good flogging now and then. Probably rather frequent castigation was needed in order to keep the teacher's hand in sufficient practice to do a thorough and effective job! We have sometimes wondered if the good Lord didn't take pity on the youngsters when he sent in that call to the ministry! This teacher's pupils toed the mark, though the single but sure appeal was always through the nether clothes of the offending urchins. Some of the vivid accounts of punishments most conscientiously administered by this later good and godly preacher of the gospel of kindness, light, and mercy were not altogether attractive pictures to the present writer.

This way of attempting to build up character is of course radically wrong in principle and never genuinely successful in practice. Good citizens are not the result of this method, and when they do turn out right, it is in spite of the disciplinary blunders of the school. However, there probably are times when proper corporal punishment is the only way out, and, moreover, clearly the duty of parent or teacher. When such times come, if ever, the teacher should consult her conscience and her best judgment and then try to do her whole duty by the individual. It is no doubt entirely possible to spare the rod and spoil the child; and in this serious business we have no less authority than that of Holy Writ itself.

XVI. Making a high appeal. It is a matter of supreme importance to make an appeal on the highest plane of the pupil's moral life and gradually to raise this level of understanding, appreciation, and response. It is a sad mistake when any sort of suspicious attitude is entertained, or when the teacher's words or manner indicate an estimate of the pupil on a lower level than the facts would warrant. This disposition to judge harshly or unfairly is calculated to cause a break between teacher and pupil. It is better for the teacher to become in some degree the victim of misplaced confidence than to judge a pupil incorrectly. The teacher is always in duty bound to recognize a pupil's personality and fully to respect his private personal life. There is opportunity here for insight and for kindly courtesy, to which every boy and girl are clearly entitled. The contagion of example is a most powerful force. Character is, after all, largely caught and not taught. It is best taught, not by precept, but rather by the teacher's worthy example.

XVII. Certain restraining influences. We all recognize, at least in the other fellow, the personal influence of a cheerful disposition and a good temper. Have you, fellow teacher, ever lost your temper, or become irascible, morose, long-faced, gloomy, fretful, given to bickering? Have you noted the effect on your school? Will it not pay good dividends to keep cheerful, happy, contented, good-natured? If you lose your temper often, you may soon lose your job, and rightly so. Space forbids the amplification of such entertaining and profitable subjects as the moral influence of a pleasant voice; of a clear eye; of a heart-to-heart talk; of a just estimate of personal worth; of suspension of judgment; of discriminating sympathy; of a loyal fellowship; of a helpful, wholesome attitude and spirit;

of a determined will; of a firm hand; of a steady requirement; of a square deal; of a forgiving spirit; of the inculcation of a sense of mastery; of assuming no nonexistent problem; of the habitual use of common sense; of a meeting on common ground; of a wise appeal; of getting in touch with the child's interests; of building up a safe, moral school tone and a wholesome, sound public opinion; of using all these as motive power; and, finally, of putting the responsibility for wrongdoing where it properly belongs — with the pupil himself, assuming that the teacher's moral motives, objectives, and conduct are on a proper level.

XVIII. Spirit of the school. The spirit of the school seems to the writer to be the one great thing to strive for in solving the problem of discipline. Every effort should be made to secure a good spirit. "The spirit of the school — the spirit which makes children say 'our school' — is one of the strongest of moral forces. Where there exists a proper *esprit de corps*, the problem of discipline is largely solved. . . . The child should early gain the idea of social membership. The truth that coöperation and unselfishness are essential to true social living should be made real and vital. This truth is brought home through all group work where the work of each is necessary to the work of all; and through the feeling in school or class that the honor of all is in the keeping of each. No person has a fully developed moral character until there has been a transfer of the seat of authority from without to within himself; a moral man obeys himself."[1] And a moral boy likewise obeys himself. Personal influence gradually develops in the pupil the desire and the habit of settling all questions of right and wrong at the bar of conscience.

XIX. Spiritual freedom and our democracy. An unruly

[1] The above quotation is from an article in *The Outlook*.

school is of course a disaster, and it may be necessary, that order may be brought out of chaos, to resort temporarily to drastic, artificial measures. It is always true, however, that whenever a really good teacher — a man or woman of forceful personality — gets into a badly controlled school, the personal influence at once begins to show itself, and the situation gradually, often quickly, clears up, usually without the use of severe punishments. In a good school there is always true freedom because in some way the teacher sees to it that individuals understand that *the pupils are the school.* The really good disciplinarian does not set himself over, against, or above the pupils. There is no sort of separation, no show or gesture of authority — as exemplified, for example, in the old rostrum or platform, which, happily, has now practically disappeared. There is found, on the contrary, a free social mingling, in work and play, with a common social purpose. Teacher and pupils are free happy citizens working together in a truly democratic community.

A teacher who has an effective personality always values freedom highly, and understands and appreciates the great potency of spiritual forces. People of this character realize the nature of our democracy and of citizenship in a democracy. They see that spiritual freedom, freedom to choose, freedom to purpose, freedom to act, are essential in any effective government of the people, by the people, and for the people. The project curriculum, all socialized procedures, problem-solving situations, and the like, all essentially embody the idea of spiritual freedom in the working out of personal choices and purposes to the end that the individual may, by such influences, be more fully prepared for free, willing, participating citizenship, first in school and later outside of school, in life. If American democ-

racy is to survive, the schools must in some way develop that spiritual freedom to the end that personal character, personal influence, and true personal happiness may insure the social-civic integrity and welfare of the state.

Class Discussion Questions

1. Why is discipline so important in any school? Is Doctor Winship right in his estimate? Why?
2. How do you distinguish between authority and influence? Why did the old schoolmaster depend so much on his authority?
3. What is true obedience? What is the wrong kind of obedience? How can you secure true obedience?
4. What character deficiencies in a teacher might cause her to have trouble in her discipline?
5. Discuss: He only is free who desires to do that which he ought to do.
6. Why should a country teacher, especially, know how to secure obedience by natural means?
7. What is the relation of motivation to the control of children? Give illustrations of well-motivated activities in which the problem of discipline takes care of itself.
8. Name ten qualifications which a rural teacher should possess in order to have control.
9. In what ways do home conditions affect the problem of discipline? Illustrate.
10. Why did teachers in the old days have so much faith in corporal punishment? What is the cause of the change?
11. What kind of a spirit would you like to have in your school? How can you secure such a spirit?
12. What is the result if you appeal to a child on a low moral plane in handling his misdemeanors?
13. In the section on "Certain restraining influences" see whether you can add three more to the list.
14. Do you think the school consists essentially of human relationships? What control has the teacher over these relationships?

15. Why will poor teaching be a bid for disorder? In what ways will skillful teaching help in the control of a school?

16. Do you think it is wrong for the teacher to make misconduct a "personal matter" between her and the child? Discuss.

17. What will be the effect on the school if the teacher frequently loses her temper?

18. How can a teacher learn to control her emotions, whether temper or any other manifestation?

19. What is meant by resisting the pupil? Do you believe in the doctrine of nonresistance? In what way do some people carry this idea too far, perhaps? What is the best course for a teacher to follow?

Useful Supplementary Readings

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CHAPTER III

THRIFT FOR TEACHER AND PUPIL

Although this chapter contains material which the teacher can use to develop the habit of thrift in her pupils, the primary purpose of the discussion is to aid the teacher personally. If the teacher herself realizes the need for thrift in her own life, and if she begins to live according to some definite plan of saving, the influence of her life upon that of her children will usually be wholesome and beneficial. It is not difficult for teachers to find plenty of useful and usable teaching materials on the subject of thrift at the present time; it therefore seemed best in this chapter to appeal to the teacher, and through her to the boys and girls. The teacher's example is potent for good, but she must also inaugurate a definite system of pupil saving so that habits will be built up through specific reactions.

Unquestionably, one of the greatest services which the public schools of America can render is the inculcation of the habit of thrift in our boys and girls. If we are to continue as a great nation, we must learn how to save wisely. During the war adults and children alike saved in order to help the nation carry on and to make the world safe for democracy. There is as great need now, in time of peace, for saving and for personal and family thrift. We are rich as a nation, but not as individuals. Most individuals and the majority of families live a relatively hand-to-mouth existence, for almost nothing is laid aside for the proverbial rainy day. Every country teacher should teach and train pupils in thrift

throughout the entire year. A few minutes now and then will probably suffice, but enough time should be taken to develop the correct ideals and habits. The main thing is the right attitude and personal practice on the part of the teacher, for this will do much to develop right habits in her pupils.

I. What is thrift? Thrift is not stinginess or miserliness. It is the opposite. Thrift is an attitude of mind; it is an ideal; it is a habit of thought; it is a fundamental trait of character; it is a way of life. The really thrifty person saves more than money; he conserves his time and his health as well, and he makes good use of all that he possesses materially, physically, and spiritually. He is provident, preparing to-day for future conditions and contingencies. He places the future above the present. This means forethought and self-control. Money thrift is only a part of the general character of prudence and foresight, but it is a very important and necessary part. The idea of thrift is essentially that of self-discipline, of moral stamina, of personal integrity. To practice thrift demands vertebrate qualities rather than soft, flabby yielding to the temptations of the hour. But, most emphatically, thrift does not mean lack of pleasure in life. In fact, the happiest persons in the world are those who providently and regularly lay aside for the certain needs of the future.

II. A nation of spendthrifts. All about us here in America, in country and city alike, we find people spending money recklessly, using their time, energy, and money on the pleasures of the day and hour, with but little thought of the certain day of dire need ahead of them. This country is young and rich in natural resources. The nation is prosperous — the richest nation in the world. All around are evidences of wealth, and the very atmosphere seems charged

with a desire for lavish expenditure. "Easy come, easy go" seems to be the rule. It would be a great lesson for millions of American citizens if they could see and understand the frugality of many European and Asiatic nations. Compared with these careful, provident people, we are a nation of shamefully prodigal spenders. This prodigality will some day be our undoing unless we learn to live differently. This spendthrift manner of living cannot go on indefinitely. The day of reckoning is sure to come, and it will be a calamitous day of suffering.

III. Tragedy of old-age poverty. Reliable statistics show that a very large percentage — over ninety-five per cent, in fact — of persons sixty-five years of age and over are dependent upon relatives or others for the whole or part of their support. Over ninety-five per cent of our people are absolutely dependent upon their daily wage, with nothing laid aside. Sickness of the wage earner in such a family is a most serious matter. Only one third of the families in this country own their homes. Two thirds of the people who die in America leave no estate whatever. As a nation we are wealthy; as a people we are poor. This is a tragical situation, due in the majority of cases to lack of thrift and saving during the earning years of life. Such people have for years and years spent all they have earned and sometimes more, without regard to the inevitable rainy day. In many cases the income has been large enough to warrant a sufficient sum being set aside each month. But all has disappeared. The writer is well aware that extreme poverty, disease, and sickness account for many cases, but there is still left an appalling percentage due to the squandering of money, extravagance, and waste in the manner of family living.

IV. Modern temptations to spend. We have only to look about us to see that on every hand old and young alike are

lured on by all sorts of inducements to part with their money. The apparently legitimate fields for the expenditure of money have increased tremendously during the past twenty years. Social and civic institutions and organizations of various kinds are calling for more and more funds to carry on their enterprises. Churches, hospitals, homes, clubs, civic business enterprises, and various charitable causes demand constantly increasing support. Aside from all this, consider the automobile as used merely for pleasure, questionable movies, expensive clothing, cosmetics, more or less harmful amusements, extravagant foods, needlessly elegant home furnishings, and so on — it is a wonder that anyone is able to have a bank account or to provide for the future. The temptations of the present day in America to spend one's money are the greatest in the history of the world, beyond all doubt.

V. Conservation of time and energy. True thrift is always a conservative force. "There is no gain so certain as the economical use of what you have." We all have twenty-four hours in the day, and we all have a certain amount of bodily, nervous, and mental energy. How do we use our time and our energy? This is a vital question, for time and energy constitute the very warp and woof of life itself. We can make profitable use of what we have, or we can waste it in useless expenditure. We are able to judge very largely of a person's character by what he does with his time and how he expends his vital nerve force day by day. We all need to work, we all need rest and sleep, and recreation. It is not a waste of time to take a needed vacation. It is not a waste of time to get adequate sleep. But how do we use the eight hours allotted to work? Are we thrifty in our use of time and energy?

VI. Opinions of those who know. Every really great

man has understood the need for thrift and saving. The list is a long one and includes illustrious names — Franklin, Roosevelt, Carlyle, Spurgeon, Munger, Carnegie, Lincoln, Washington, Coolidge, Hoover, and many others.

Andrew Carnegie told the whole secret in these words: "The best way to accumulate money is resolutely to bank a fixed portion of your income, no matter how small the amount."

In a helpful bulletin issued by the United States Government we find these very true statements: "Learn to distinguish between luxuries and necessities, and don't be neutral." "Keep track of all disbursements. Find out if you are wasting money, then plug the leak." "Regularity of deposit is the secret of success in accumulating money."

Benjamin Franklin said: "Remember that money is of a prolific generating nature. Money can beget money, and its offspring can beget more, and so on. The more there is of it, the more it produces every turning, so that the profits rise quicker and quicker." . . . "A penny saved is a penny earned." . . . "Ere you consult fancy, consult your purse." . . . "A stitch in time saves nine." . . . "Keep thy shop and thy shop will keep thee." . . . "Take care of the pence and the pounds will take care of themselves." . . . "If you know how to spend less than you get, you have the philosopher's stone."

Said Spurgeon, the great English preacher: "Economy is half the battle of life; it is not so hard to earn money as to spend it well."

Munger, American preacher and author, states: "The habit of saving is itself an education; it fosters every virtue, teaches self-denial, cultivates the sense of order, trains to forethought, and so broadens the mind."

Simon W. Straus, great American banker, has probably

done more to promote thrift in this country than any other person. He is quoted in *The World Book* as follows: "Money saving is not the sum total of thrift. It is only one of the stones in the building of character. Thrift means much more than the saving of money. There is thrift of character; thrift of time; thrift of health; and moral thrift." . . . "Money saving is only a function; it is thrift in its most elemental sense. But the thrift I preach is thrift in all things, and this is the thrift I hope will be taught in the schools of America. For this is the thrift that will give our beloved nation the type of citizens she will need. From an economic standpoint, thrift is a national necessity."

VII. Living on a budget. The surest way to make a wise adjustment of all expenditures of either an individual or a family is by means of the budget system. A budget is an apportionment of the income into all necessary and expected items of expenditure, based upon past experience of the individual or of the family. The author prints a budget for the country teacher in his book, *Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher*, pp. 55–56. It is not difficult to get the idea of a budget and then to teach it to children. If any individual acquires money regularly in any way or in different ways, and then spends this money regularly for different purposes, it will be possible to make out a budget for such a person. In the case of the teacher, she will need to spend money for board, clothing, dentist, church and charity, professional advancement, etc. It will be an easy matter to set these items all down and to put aside a certain amount for each. The first matter to be taken care of each month is the sum to go into the savings bank, life insurance, or the like. *A definite sum should be regularly and religiously set aside as monthly savings and then the teacher should plan to live on the rest.*

BUDGETED ACCOUNT OF A RURAL TEACHER

	EARNINGS		SAVINGS		BOARD AND ROOM		CLOTHING		CHURCH, CHARITY, GIFTS		PROFESSION		LIFE INSURANCE	
Budget Estimates	1030	00	210	00	245	00	225	00	55	00	50	00	35	00
January .	100	00	20	00	20	00	15	00	5	00	4	00		
February .	100	00	20	00	20	00	15	00	4	00	1	00		
March .	100	00	20	00	20	00	19	00	4	00	4	00		
April . .	100	00	20	00	20	00	20	00	5	00	2	00		
May . .	100	00	20	00	20	00	15	00	3	00	5	00	34	00
June . .	70	00	10	00	15	00	20	00	5	00	2	00		
July . .	75	00	10	00	15	00	25	00	2	00	5	00		
August .	80	00	10	00	15	00	15	00	4	00	2	00		
September	100	00	20	00	20	00	15	00	6	00	3	00		
October .	100	00	20	00	20	00	20	00	3	00	2	00		
November	100	00	20	00	20	00	25	00	4	00	17	00		
December	100	00	20	00	20	00	20	00	7	00	5	00		
Actual Totals	1125	00	210	00	225	00	224	00	52	00	52	00	34	00

Note: The sums shown in the Savings column are saved regardless of the amounts indicated in Actual Savings column. The $55.00 in the latter column are not added. The above figures represent conditions for an average young woman teaching a country school, who is often home at week-ends. She attends summer school every other year or every third year, and thus her summer earnings vary.

The uniformity shown above will not obtain in actual practice, but the principle and method remain the same.

INDICATED IN MONTHLY AMOUNTS

S. & A. INSURANCE		CAR FARE, ETC.		DOCTOR AND DENTIST		OCULIST AND OPTICIAN		RECREATION AND AMUSEMENT		MISCELLANEOUS		EXPENSES FOR MONTH		ACTUAL SAVINGS	
35	00	35	00	35	00	25	00	35	00	45	00	Cash on hand Jan 1.		55	00
32	00	2	00					4	00	2	00	84	00	16	00
		1	00	5	00	5	00	3	00	2	00	56	00	44	00
		3	00	10	00	3	00	1	00	12	50	76	50	23	50
		2	00			5	00	2	00	7	00	63	00	37	00
		2	00	5	00			4	00	3	00	91	00	9	00
		4	00			10	00	2	00	9	00	67	00	3	00
		5	00	4	00	5	00	3	00	3	00	67	00	8	00
		2	00					3	00	2	00	43	00	37	00
		1	00	10	00			1	00	2	00	58	00	42	00
		3	00					2	00	1	00	51	00	49	00
		5	00			5	00	2	00	2	00	80	00	20	00
		2	00	10	00			5	00	2	00	71	00	29	00
32	00	32	00	44	00	33	00	32	00	47	50	807	50	317	50

How to get ahead: (1) Resolutely set aside 20% of your salary each month; (2) keep exact record of all expenses; (3) don't go in debt except for an education — pay cash; (4) budget your expenses and live within your budget; (5) have a checking account at a bank; (6) forecast your needs as far ahead as you can, often a year.

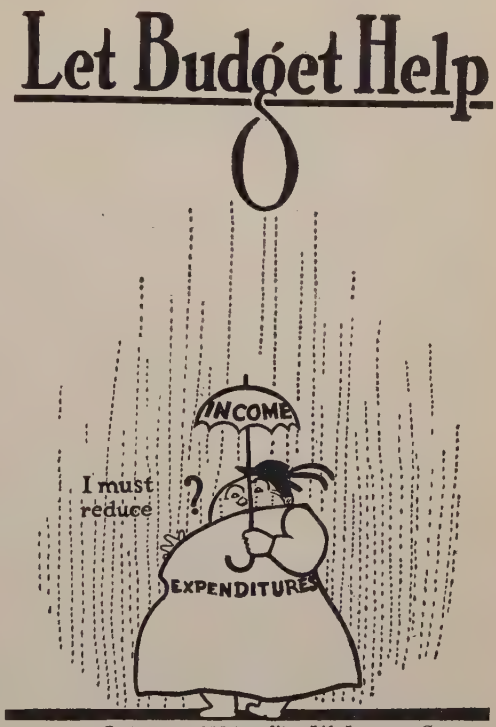
Suggestive Budgets for Various Incomes

Income	$900.00	$1200.00	$1500.00	$1800.00	$2100.00	$2400.00	$3000.00	$5000.00
Savings	24.00	50.00	100.00	225.00	350.00	470.00	750.00	1250.00
Food	425.00	480.00	540.00	600.00	600.00	660.00	720.00	840.00
Clothing	90.00	150.00	200.00	240.00	278.00	300.00	360.00	600.00
Shelter	2 rooms	3 rooms						
1. Rent	156.00	228.00	240.00	300.00	360.00	.....	.....	.....
2. Investment and taxes	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	330.00	330.00	540.00
3. Heat and light	68.80	72.00	100.00	100.00	120.00	120.00	120.00	240.00
Recreation	36.00	48.00	72.00	72.00	84.00	96.00	108.00	240.00
Church and charity	18.00	36.00	60.00	72.00	84.00	96.00	108.00	240.00
Insurance	24.00	72.00	72.00	72.00	84.00	96.00	108.00	240.00
Car fare	31.20	31.20	31.20	31.20	31.20	31.20	31.20	.....
Miscellaneous, including literature and physician	27.00	32.80	48.80	51.80	72.80	100.80	156.80	330.00
Help in home	.....	.....	36.00*	36.00*	36.00*	100.00*	208.00	480.00
Total	$900.00	$1200.00	$1500.00	$1800.00	$2100.00	$2400.00	$3000.00	$5000.00

*Employed by the hour.

Courtesy Treasury Department, Washington, D. C.

In the case of a family it will be necessary to distribute the total available amount among such groupings as the following: savings, life insurance, investment, home, groceries, milk, meat, ice, taxes, rent, telephone, clothing, fuel, light, help, laundry, furnishings, church, clubs, magazines, education, doctor, dentist, gifts, autos, amusements, books, vacation, etc. The larger the income, the more one can save and the more one can use for the luxuries of life. The smaller the income, the larger the per cent which must go for food, shelter, clothing, and other actual necessities.



© Courtesy of Metropolitan Life Insurance Company

Get ready for the rainy day

Certain percentages have been worked out for individuals and for families, but these are only suggestive. A budget must be somewhat flexible, and must be readjusted from time to time as experience and various exigencies may demand. A young business woman earning $100 a month — say a teacher — might make the following distribution: savings, 10%; room and board, 40%; clothing, 20%; personal operating expenses, 15%; advancement or develop-

Month of_____

Total Income			
	Salary; Commission; Dividends on Investments, Liberty Bonds, etc.; Income from all other sources		
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
28			
29			
30			
31			
Total			

Savings			Food						Shelter			Clothing		
Deposits in Savings Bank; Life Insurance Premiums; Payment on home or payments in Bldg. Loan Assn.; Investments made			Meat & Fish		Groceries; Bread; Pastries		Fresh Vegetables; Fruit; Milk; Meals Out		Rent or taxes on home property; Interest on Mortgaged Home; Fire Ins.; Business Carfare; Water Rates, Property Taxes			Ready Made Clothing; Material for Clothing; Tailoring; Repairs; Cleansing; Pressing; Dressmaking		

			Savings			Food			Shelter			Clothing		
Total Income			Budget for Savings			Budget Allowance			Budget			Budget		
*Total Spent Under Bud. Plan			Saved			Amount Spent			Spent			Spent		
Unaccounted for														

A suggestive form for budget record

From Fay, C. R. — *Elements of Economics;* The Macmillan Company, 1926.

General Expenses						Advancement									Daily Totals Paid Out (Add Column Totals Across Page)	
House			Personal			Miscellaneous			Health			Education				
Electricity, Gas; Repairs; Renewal of Equipment; Coal, Ice; Oil, Soaps; Laundry Service; Furniture; Telephone; Burglary Insurance			Allowances; Gifts; Entertaining; Cigars; Carfares; Candies; Toilet Articles; Personal Taxes						Dentist; Doctor; Medicines; Vacations; Recreation			Instruction Books; Magazines; Church Support				
1																
2																
3																
4																
5																
28																
29																
30																
31																
Total																

General Expenses		Advancement		* Carry this Total over to Opposite Sheet
Budget Allowance		Budget		
Amount Spent		Spent		

Suggestive budget record (*Continued*)

From Fay, C. R. — *Elements of Economics;* The Macmillan Company, 1926.

ment, 15%. In the case of the rural teacher not so large a per cent needs to be set aside for room and board; more can be saved and more can be invested in professional advancement and personal development.

Any teacher interested in this subject — and every teacher should be interested — can get useful information from her banker or by writing to the Treasury Department, Washington, D. C. One can also secure a *Household Budget and Account Book* by writing to the Service Department of The Seaman's Bank for Savings, 56 Wall Street, New York City. One will be able to learn about a *Money Book for Boys and Girls* by writing to the Bowery Savings Bank, New York City. One can find out about a good account book by writing to Brentano's, New York or Chicago, or by inquiring at any reliable book store or stationer's. Send to the U. S. Treasury Department for the booklet, *Thrift in the Household*, which contains suggestive budgets, and sample home-record sheets. Several insurance companies also publish booklets on the subject of budgets.

VIII. Keeping a record of expenses. Probably the first step in forming the thrift habit is to keep account of every penny of expenditure. The very act of doing this, involving a good deal of determination and persistence, will develop self-control and character. Every transaction is either a receipt or an expenditure. Buy a book, probably costing not more than twenty-five cents, ruled for date, for name of item, and for dollars and cents. Then begin to-day and keep account of every cent you spend. Be sure to indicate the date and the purpose of item. If you are living on a budget, as you should be, your expenditures can be distributed at once as you set them down, by having your book divided up for board, for clothing, for dentist, for church and charity, etc. Then at the end of the month and year you can easily

SAMPLE EXPENSE ACCOUNT OF A COUNTRY TEACHER FOR THE MONTH OF MARCH, 1929

		SPENT		BALANCE	
Feb. 28	Cash on hand			60	00
March 2	February salary — less savings			80	00
March 4	Board and room for February	20	00	120	00
March 5	Car fare	1	00	119	00
March 6	Sundaes — Helen and I		40	118	60
March 7	Professional book	1	60	117	00
March 9	Pair of shoes	8	50	108	50
March 9	Spring hat	9	00	99	50
March 11	Gas — using Ivy's car	1	20	98	30
March 12	Flowers for Mother	2	00	96	30
March 13	Dentist	10	00	86	30
March 16	Bus fare		90	85	40
March 16	Watch repair	2	00	83	40
March 18	Dinner — Betty and I	1	20	82	20
March 20	Eyes tested	3	00	79	20
March 21	Fountain pen	7	00	72	20
March 23	Bus fare		90	71	30
March 23	Two pairs stockings	2	75	68	55
March 25	Movies — Jean and I	1	00	67	55
March 27	Church subscription	4	00	63	55
March 29	Teachers' magazine	2	00	61	55
March 30	Stationery	1	50	60	05
March 30	Coat cleaned and pressed	2	50	57	55
April 1	Cash on hand			57	55
April 2	Salary			100	00
April 2	Deposit in savings bank	20	00	137	55
April 2	Board and room for March	20	00	117	55
	(And so on for each month)				

add up and know exactly where you stand — a very great satisfaction, as you can prove.

IX. Fascination of a bank account. Every teacher should do business with a bank. She should have both a savings account and a checking account at some good, thoroughly reliable bank. There are many such all over the country. Some banks require that each depositor keep a balance of a

hundred dollars or more all of the time, and this is a good additional inducement to save. At the present time many banks are very justly charging for their services where the daily balance is less than a stated amount, as a hundred dollars or more. Such a fee of fifty cents or one dollar a month is a small charge for an exceedingly important service, and many teachers will find it to their interest to pay it. A good bank account increases one's self-respect and gives one the feeling of being a substantial citizen of the community. The teacher should go to the cashier at the start and get full instructions on the way to do business with a bank. She should learn always to sign her name in the same way and she should ascertain exactly how to make out a check properly, and how to indorse a check. If she is a wise young woman, she will always make out the stub first, number both stubs and checks, and then go over her canceled checks at the end of the month to see if she and the bank agree. By all means do business with a bank.

X. How money grows. "If $1.00 per week is invested steadily for 25 years at 4 per cent interest, compounded quarterly, it will have amounted to $2227.28 at the end of that time. Hoarding without getting interest would have laid up $1300. Living for that period, saving nothing, would give you $0000 in cash, but an enormous sum of regret and disgust."[1] You have worked for your money. Now see to it that your money works for you. If any person who earns increasing amounts as the years go by will, regularly month by month, put increasing savings into some safe savings institution at compound interest, in the course of twenty-five to forty years there will be an ample amount to take care of such a person in old age. The money itself

[1] Brown, J. C., and Coffman, L. D. — *The Teaching of Arithmetic;* Row, Peterson and Company.

will grow and multiply to an extent which is amazing to the uninitiated. "The following illustration is taken from *A Scrap Book of Elementary Mathematics*, by William F. White (p. 47). It shows the enormous results obtained when compound interest is computed for long periods. The illustration will impress this fact upon the minds of pupils. At 3%, one dollar, put at interest at the beginning of the Christian era to be compounded annually, would have amounted in 1906 to \$3,000,000,000,000,000,000,000,000. The amount of \$1.00 for the same time and rate, but at simple interest, would be only \$58.18." [1]

INTEREST TABLE

This table gives the compound amount of \$1.00 for different periods, at different rates.

YEAR PERIODS	2%	2½%	3%	4%	4½%	5%	6%
1	1.020	1.025	1.030	1.040	1.045	1.050	1.060
2	1.040	1.050	1.060	1.081	1.092	1.102	1.123
3	1.061	1.077	1.092	1.125	1.141	1.157	1.191
4	1.082	1.103	1.125	1.170	1.192	1.215	1.262
5	1.104	1.131	1.159	1.216	1.246	1.276	1.338
6	1.126	1.159	1.194	1.265	1.302	1.340	1.418
7	1.148	1.188	1.230	1.316	1.360	1.407	1.503
8	1.171	1.218	1.266	1.368	1.422	1.477	1.593
9	1.195	1.249	1.304	1.423	1.486	1.551	1.689
10	1.219	1.280	1.344	1.480	1.553	1.628	1.790

The interest may be compounded annually, semiannually, or quarterly. In most cases the savings bank pays the interest on the deposits once in six months.

A country teacher deposited \$20.00 in a savings bank each month for nine months during a period of five years. How much money had she at the end of the five years, interest compounded semiannually at 3%? This is an interesting

[1] BROWN, J. C., AND COFFMAN, L. D. — *The Teaching of Arithmetic;* Row, Peterson and Company.

problem for a rural teacher to work out. The results will prove enlightening.

If the interest is computed every six months, and each time added to the principal, the sum of $10.00 deposited monthly, at 2½% interest, will, in ten years, amount to $1553.10. This shows how money grows.

It will pay any teacher to go to her bank and find out about the methods of the savings department. One can start in with a deposit of a dollar. A card or a pass book will show the date, the deposits, the interest, the withdrawals, and the balance. One will get interest not only on his deposits but also on his interest. Money will earn from 2% to 4%, and every six months the record of the interest up to date will be made in the account book. A first-class savings bank is a very safe place to put money, because the operations of the bank are regulated by state law and the funds are invested in safe securities. State inspectors also visit the bank frequently.

XI. Courses in thrift. In many states teachers now give regular instruction and systematic training in the inculcation of the habit of thrift. However, rural schools have not done nearly so much in this direction as those of urban communities. In some states elaborate courses have been prepared, and the training is correlated very skillfully with regular subjects of the curriculum. In 1922 the state superintendent of public instruction in Ohio issued a very complete manual of plans and teaching outlines arranged by grades for the teaching of thrift. Other states print helpful outlines on thrift in the state manuals intended for elementary schools.

In the *Idaho Bulletin of Education* we find the following relative to aims, principles, and methods:[1]

[1] Printed by permission of State Board of Education, Boise.

The aims of thrift instruction are:

1. To train the child in habits of conservation and the wise use of all his resources.

2. To create through the schools a public sentiment in favor of thrift and economy, and through this public sentiment, to cultivate the national habit of thrift.

The methods of instruction are:

1. Direct presentation of the ideals, purposes, and principles of thrift through morning talks, discussions, and special exercises.

2. Correlation of subject matter in thrift with the established curriculum of the schools.

3. Habit formation through the practice of saving time, materials, and money; investment in Thrift Stamps and Government Savings Stamps; deposits in local savings institutions; investments in personal property looking toward increase on investment.

Principles of thrift to be emphasized in the various subjects:

1. Conservation, in geography
2. Opportunity, in biography
3. Coöperation, in history and civics
4. Industry and ideals of thrift, in literature
5. Earnings, savings, and investment, in arithmetic
6. Conservation of health, in physiology
7. Economy in construction and use of materials, in shop work
8. Economy and right use of foods, in cooking
9. Economy of making and repairing, in sewing
10. Enthusiasm, concentration, and singleness of purpose, in all subjects

Five principles of personal thrift:

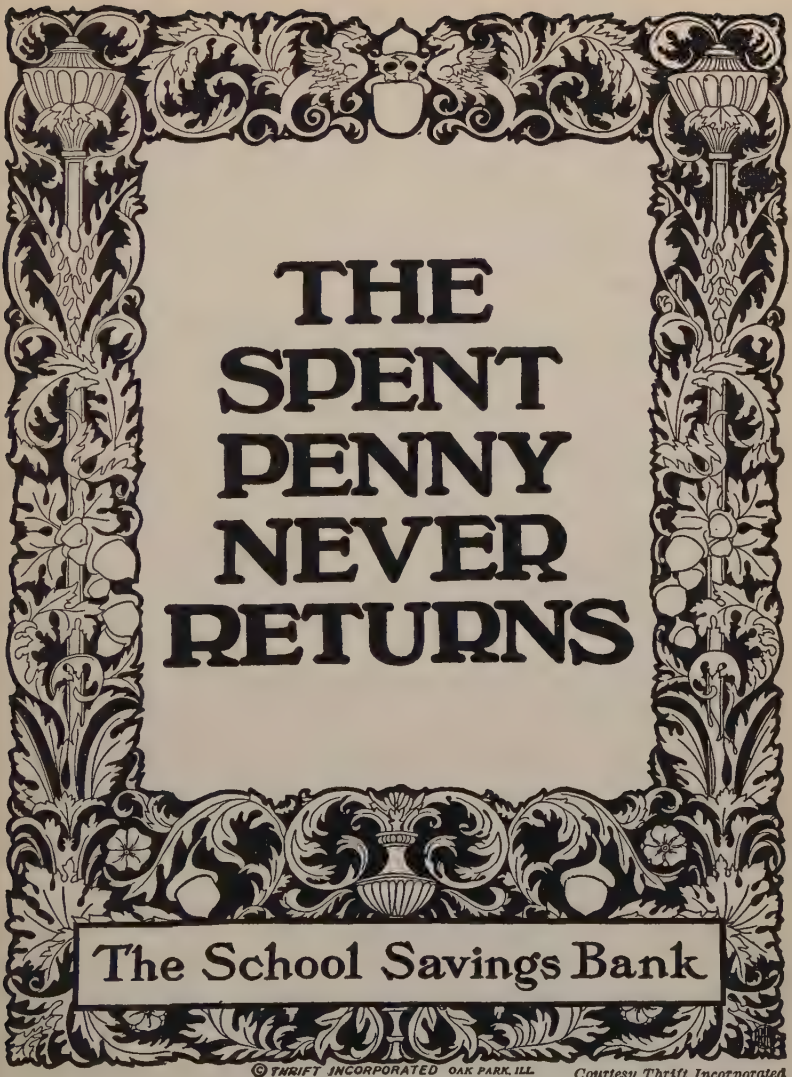
1. Learning how to keep healthy
2. Learning how to work efficiently
3. Learning how to save time, energy, money, and materials
4. Learning how to spend wisely
5. Learning how to invest money intelligently

Any rural teacher can secure a course in thrift by writing to the National Thrift Committee, 347 Madison Avenue, New York City.

XII. The desire to save. Any teacher or any child in any school who has the desire to save will find ways of saving. The difficulty is that most people do not care to save. So the problem becomes one of incentives or motivation, of creating an adequate desire to save. In order to stimulate an interest in saving the teacher needs to present the right ideas, for the emotional impulse is the natural result of the appropriate images. Among the inducements to save the following are suggested in the Indiana manual for elementary schools:

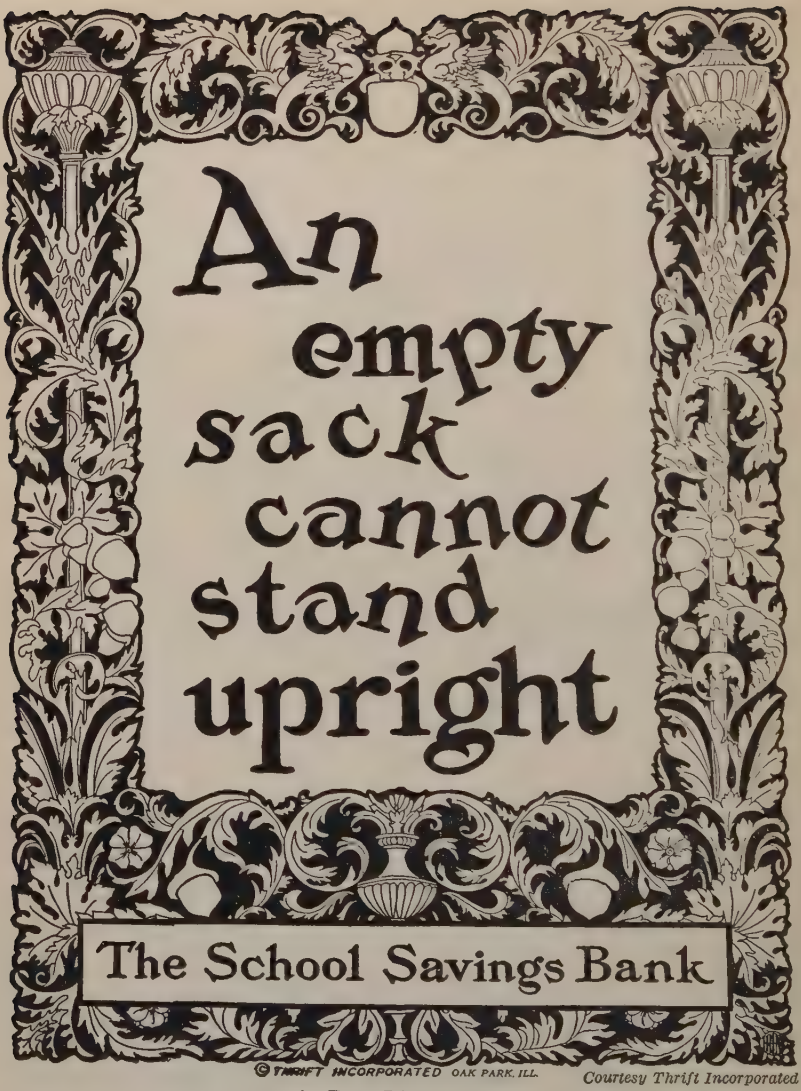
1. Save to buy books and school materials.
2. Save to buy home library and presents.
3. Save to buy clothing, thereby helping parents and assuming responsibility.
4. Save to buy a bicycle, pony, roller skates, tennis racket, as against movies, candy, gum, and the like.
5. Save to buy musical instruments, as: mandolin, cornet, guitar, cello.
6. Save to go to high school next year.
7. Save to go to college in four or five years.
8. Save this winter for a trip next summer.
9. Save for those emergencies which may occur.
10. Save to buy a home.

The teacher should write to the Treasury Department, Washington, D. C., to Thrift, Incorporated, Oak Park, Illinois, or to her State Department of Education. Any rural teacher who stresses thrift, health, and good citizenship is putting emphasis on three extremely important and related subjects.



Courtesy Thrift Incorporated

A good thing not to forget

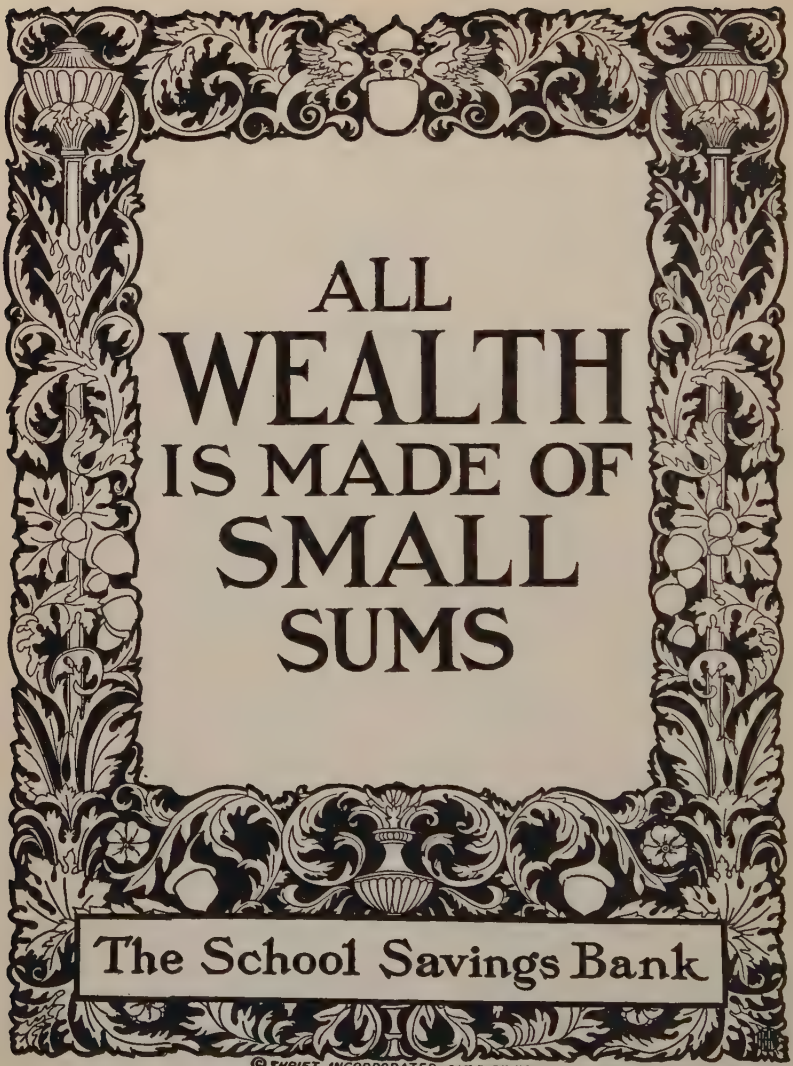


Courtesy Thrift Incorporated

As Poor Richard says

Courtesy Thrift Incorporated

A spendthrift is never financially safe



Courtesy Thrift Incorporated

Let us not despise nickels and dimes

XIII. Inspirational maxims and slogans. Those schools in the Middle West which have been conducting their school-savings banking according to the plan of *The School Savings System and Service* of Thrift, Incorporated, Chicago or Oak Park, Illinois, have been supplied with suggestive and inspiring thrift posters month by month. These posters, placed where all of the children can see them, are strong reminders to save. The idea of saving is, by this daily forceful reiteration, lodged firmly in the consciousness of the child. In the bulletin entitled *Fifteen Lessons in Thrift*, issued by the U. S. Treasury Department some years ago, the following reminders to save are found:

Save first, spend afterwards. — Thrift is a habit, not a hardship. — Save and succeed. — Coin thrift into Thrift Stamps. — Thrift is shorthand for "Waste not, want not." — The time to save money is before you spend it. — Poorhouses are filled with those who failed to save. — You never miss the water till the well runs dry. — The man who cannot save the first dollar cannot save the last. — Millions will be dependent in old age. — Thrift takes you up the ladder, waste brings you down. — It is better to see your money grow than to watch it go. — Only 1 man in 20 leaves enough to pay the undertaker. — Look before or you'll find yourself behind. — A small leak will sink a great ship.

I believe in the habit of saving because:

It helps to build character.
It prepares for opportunities.
It makes one self-sustaining.
It meets emergencies.
It secures freedom from worry.
It enables contributions to others' needs.
It is essential to national prosperity.

"Economy makes happy homes and sound nations; instill it deep." — Washington.

"Teach economy; that is one of the virtues. It begins with saving money." — Lincoln.

"Extravagance rots character. Train youth away from it. The habit of saving stiffens the will and brightens the energies." — Roosevelt.

"I have never seen any road to independence except by savings."

"A man with only one dollar of assets has to take the first job offered him."

"A man with $5000 saved can go a long ways toward dictating who is to get his services." — Herbert Hoover.

XIV. American Society for Thrift. This society was organized in 1913 by Simon W. Straus, banker of New York and Chicago. It was the practical outcome of investigations made in Europe by Mr. Straus, as representative of the American Government. Mr. Straus had received his commission through the Federal Bureau of Education, and as a result of his researches, it became evident that the American people needed a better idea of thrift, and also needed, as a matter of national policy, to develop the habit of thrift. In European countries it was found that thrift is the general practice, while we know that in America extravagant spending and waste is the rule. The American Society for Thrift has worked for several years with the National Education Association, and to-day thrift instruction in American schools is common, though not by any means universal. The Society collects no funds and its purpose is the education of children and adults in habits of thrift. The reader should consult the article on Thrift in *The World Book*.[1]

XV. The country teacher and thrift. The teacher in a rural school can easily give instruction and training in the ideals and personal practice of thrift. The means for doing this are now readily available, and perhaps this chapter may

[1] *The World Book* — Ten Volumes; W. F. Quarrie and Company, Chicago. 1929.

help some to make the start. Probably the first thing to do is for the teacher herself to begin in her own way of living to carry out the principles of thrift. Begin to-day to keep account of expenditures, exact and in detail. Work out a budget and then hold to it. If the teacher believes in saving, and if she is intelligent and informed on the subject, there will be no difficulty in teaching thrift in her school. Consult your banker relative to the matter of regular savings by your pupils. He will suggest ways for doing it. Or write to The National Thrift Committee, 347 Madison Avenue, New York City. By all means make a beginning at the first opportunity. There is no work you can do of greater importance, unless, indeed, it be that of health training.

XVI. Bargain counter delusions. The American people waste a great deal of money in buying so-called bargains. To be sure there are often real bargains, if only the purchaser has enough judgment to discriminate the genuine from the spurious. However, all of us should realize that no merchant can afford to give away merchandise or to sell goods at a loss. It is conceivable that temporary competition might result in some articles being sold at a loss for a short period of time, but the business man is in business primarily to make money — quite naturally and justifiably. The bargain counter is a dangerous temptation — a place where the fool and his money are soon and often parted. As a rule, the best thing to do is to buy a good substantial article, whether a pair of shoes or a dining-room table, and then to take care of such property. An article of good quality, well and honestly made, is usually the cheapest in the end. A vast amount of money is squandered in five-and-ten-cent stores. With the bargain counter before him, the customer is tempted to buy many things which he

really does not need, doing so because they are cheap. As a result, unnecessary purchases often lie around unused.

XVII. Avoid bad investments. The following *Twelve Danger Signs* are taken from the booklet *How Other People Get Ahead*, published by the Treasury Department, Washington, D. C.

Every investor should be "on guard." This applies particularly to the small investor.

1. Mining stock. The best-looking mine in the world may prove a "white elephant." Mining is a very expensive undertaking and the risks are unusually great. There is a saying that "a mine is a hole where fools dump their money."

There are many good mining investments, of course, but this branch of the investment market is generally not for those who work for and depend upon a salary.

2. Oil stock. Drilling for oil is costly. The hazards are great. Oil investments are speculative and in a class with mining investments.

3. In the wake of every important discovery or invention there comes a host of schemes — "airplanes," "radio," "wireless." The promoters of these may have only the best of intentions, but frequently their enthusiasm is about all they have to sell. Look before you leap.

4. Investment in "real estate" situated in some distant place is sometimes as dangerous as mining stock. People have been known to buy swamps advertised as "seashore frontage." Know what you are buying before you invest.

5. "Land development" schemes frequently do not pan out. At best it is a long time before any money comes in from sales. Investment in "new companies" that are going to "sell by mail" should be generally avoided.

6. Patent rights and processes distribution. It is rarely the patentee who makes the money.

7. "New manufacturing methods" should always be closely checked and investigated.

8. An investment requiring a quick decision is often a fake. If there isn't sufficient time to "sleep over it," something is probably wrong.

9. "Special inducements" in cash discounts or stock bonuses urging you to be one of the first to invest are suspicious symptoms.

10. "Tips" alleged to land you "on the ground floor" are rarely to be taken. Those who *are* "on the ground floor" will monopolize the opportunity.

11. "Playing the stock market on margin" and all other forms of speculation are decidedly not for the small investor. Beware of the "bucket shop." If you buy stocks outright for investment, do so through a member of a legitimate exchange.

12. Stock in "mail-order companies" being organized with promises based on what others have done rarely turn out well.

Consult Your Banker

XVIII. Life insurance saving. The writer urges young teachers to buy a life insurance policy in one of the standard old-line companies as one of the safest and best forms of investment. Get a 20-payment-life policy for one thousand dollars or more, as you can afford. If you are eighteen to twenty years of age, such a policy will cost you from twenty-five to thirty dollars a year. At the end of twenty years you can get your money back if necessary, with interest on the investment. The purchase of such a policy will be a most salutary inducement to save, and from any point of view, it is a wise business transaction. The necessary physical examination is a precaution which every teacher should take, in any case. The writer knows by personal experience that life insurance is a stimulus to save and is a good form of investment for any person on a salary, especially a teacher. There are probably 75,000,000 life insurance policies in force in the United States to-day with a face value of some forty-five billions of dollars.

XIX. Wasting public property. It is the duty of every rural teacher to teach respect for public property. Children should be shown that the building and the equipment belong to all the people of the district. Mutilation, destruction, and waste of public property is in America one of our national sins. It is the business of the public school to see to it that children are given the right ideas upon this subject. It is not uncommon to find desks carved with initials and outbuildings shamefully disfigured. Every good teacher must work against all such tendencies. In many schools where books and supplies are furnished free the waste is large, and it is a constant damage to the character of the children. Pupils should be taught to be as careful of public property as of their own. Here is a matter in which teachers are sometimes woefully and inexcusably negligent. It will not be possible to develop habits of thrift in schools where the children disregard the property rights of others.

XX. Pupils save 24 million. "Nearly four million pupils in the schools of the United States deposited a total of almost 24 million dollars in school savings banks during the year ending June 30, 1927. Seven states had school savings totals of more than one million dollars each. Pennsylvania was first with more than four million, and New York second with three and one-half million. The total number of schools having school savings banks was 12,678. In many schools all the pupils deposited money in the school savings bank."

Current Events is authority for the above statements. Here we see the thrift habit in actual operation among boys and girls, who in this way are being trained for a life of prudence, foresight, success, and happiness. Evidently much progress has been made since the strenuous days of the great World War. Such saving of small sums has a very close relationship to the development of personal character, and

thus to national integrity and prosperity. For the year ending June 30, 1929, the above figures were much larger for pupils, schools, and total deposits.

Class Discussion Questions

1. Why should there be constant, perhaps daily, instruction and training in the ideals and habit of thrift?

2. Does thrift mean stinginess or miserliness? Discuss who has more to give to others, the spendthrift or the wisely economical person. What do you say when the church subscription paper is circulated?

3. In what way is thrift as a habit related to general character building and good citizenship?

4. Why are we a nation of spendthrifts? Do you think the schools have a duty in developing a more rational way of life? If so, what is it?

5. Whose fault is it that most people are more or less dependent in old age upon others for their support? How can this tragedy be avoided in many cases? Consider sickness and other misfortunes in this connection.

6. Compare the city boy and the country boy so far as temptations to spend are concerned.

7. Where is there more poverty, in town or country? What relation do you see between poverty and crime?

8. Would not this be good advice to some thousands or millions of Americans to-day: "Sell your car and save your money to buy a home"? Why?

9. Should you wait until you can save a large sum before you begin to save? How much should an individual save?

10. Does the attitude and habit of thrift apply to anything else besides money? Discuss this question.

11. Discuss this old adage: "There is no gain so certain as that which results from the economical use of what you have."

12. What money leaks are there to-day in many American families which will need to be plugged before the family will ever be prosperous?

13. Comment freely on the topic entitled: "The opinions of those who know."

14. Make out a budget for yourself for twelve months — one that you can live up to.

15. Buy an account book to-day and begin to keep track of every penny of expenditure. For each item you need the date, the purpose, and the amount. Can you develop the habit of thrift without keeping such a record?

16. Study the way money grows when put at compound interest. You are eighteen years old. Suppose you save one dollar each month and put it at 4% compound interest for the next twenty years. How much will you have when you are thirty-eight years old? The interest is compounded every six months. Suppose you save two dollars a month the second year, three dollars a month the third year, four dollars a month the fourth year, etc.

17. Don't you think you would hold your head a little higher and walk with a firmer step if you had a bank account which was constantly growing month by month? Tell how you can begin to-day.

18. Find out, if you can, about the saving habits of the Dutch or the French boys and girls, and compare with ours.

19. Consider the aims and principles set forth in the topic "Courses in thrift."

20. How can you stimulate children to want to save? Mention several ways.

21. Make out seven original slogans which will arouse the desire to save.

22. Make an original thrift poster which will encourage saving.

23. Should a teacher ever invest her earnings in mining or oil stock?

24. Is your life insured? Do you not think that would be a good way to save some money? Is not the necessary physical examination a good thing? Get a good policy and read it.

25. How can you be sure that the bank with which you do business is absolutely safe?

26. Should you be suspicious of any promises of interest or dividends beyond 6%? Is it safe to rely on the principle, "The greater the promised rate of profits, the greater the risk"? To what extent can you afford to take chances with your hard-earned money?

27. The National Thrift Committee, 347 Madison Avenue, New York City, sent out the following, entitled:

Measure Yourself

According to the 10-Point Creed of Success and Happiness.

Work and Earn . . .	——%	Own Your Home . .	——%
Make a Budget . . .	——%	Make a Will	——%
Record Expenditures	——%	Invest in Safe Securities	——%
Have a Bank Account	——%	Pay Bills Promptly .	——%
Carry Life Insurance .	——%	Share with Others .	——%

Total ——%

Are you economically efficient? Here is a good test. Credit yourself with each rule followed. What is your total?

How can you, a country teacher, make use of the above with yourself, your family, or others?

Useful Supplementary Readings

1. Abel, H. H. — *Successful Family Life on the Moderate Income;* J. B. Lippincott Company. 1921.

2. Atwood, A. W. — *How to Get Ahead;* Bobbs-Merrill Company. 1917.

3. *Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin;* Modern Readers' Series. The Macmillan Company. 1927.

4. Barnard, Florence — *Outline of Thrift Education;* The Savings Banks Association of Massachusetts. This book may be purchased of The National Thrift Committee, 347 Madison Avenue, New York City, for twenty-five cents.

5. Brown, M. W. — *The Development of Thrift;* The Macmillan Company.

6. Fay, C. R. — *Elements of Economics;* The Macmillan Company. 1926. The teacher will find Chapter III, on Consumption

and Thrift, particularly useful and suggestive. This chapter gives a number of blank forms, the use of which will no doubt do much to aid any individual or family in solving the problem of saving.

7. Hall, B. — *The New Thrift;* B. W. Huebsch, Inc. 1923.

8. Jackson, B. B. — *Thrift and Success;* Century Company. 1919.

9. Marden, O. S. — *Thrift;* T. Y. Crowell Company. 1918.

10. McKeever, W. A. — *Training the Boy;* The Macmillan Company. 1913.

11. McKeever, W. A. — *Training the Girl;* The Macmillan Company. 1914.

12. Metropolitan Life Insurance Company — *Let Budget Help.* 1928.

13. Moore, A. E. — *Pennies and Plans: A First Reader;* The Macmillan Company. 1919.

14. Pritchard, M. T., and Turkington, G. A. — *Stories of Thrift for Young Americans;* Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1915.

15. Richardson, A. S. — *Adventures in Thrift;* Bobbs-Merrill Company. 1916.

16. Smiles, Samuel — *Thrift;* Brentano's, New York and Chicago.

17. Straus, S. W. — *History of Thrift Movement in America;* J. B. Lippincott Company. 1920.

Send to The American Bankers Association, 110 East 42nd Street, New York City, for the following free booklets: *Rise Above the Crowd; Stepping Stones to Success; Thrift, the Highway to Success; School Savings.*

Write also to Thrift, Incorporated, 154 Marion Street, Oak Park, Illinois, for valuable material.

CHAPTER IV

PUBLISHING A SCHOOL PAPER[1]

I. Why have a school paper? The idea of publishing a school paper is becoming increasingly popular in some of our country schools, and the majority of teachers who have tried the plan testify that it has proved beneficial to their schools in many ways.

1. It is a means of improving the work in English.
2. It stimulates public pride in the activities of the school.
3. It helps to create a favorable school spirit.
4. It furnishes a motive for good work in several school subjects, especially language, civics, drawing, writing, and arithmetic.
5. It encourages originality and develops initiative in children.
6. It keeps patrons of the school informed of the work that is being done, and thus increases their interest in the school and its needs.

II. Some Rock County examples. Rock County (Wisconsin) was one of the first counties in that state to go rather extensively into this interesting business of getting out a weekly school paper. The first paper to receive considerable notice in Wisconsin was that published by the Beck School near Orfordville. It was entitled *Beck School News*, and Number One, Volume One, was published several years ago. Much credit is due the teacher, Miss Cora Thorson, for the remarkable results which she secured.

[1] The author is indebted for a considerable part of this chapter to Mrs. Marie Dobson Robson, a graduate of the Rock County (Wisconsin) Rural Normal School.

Since then other schools in the county have adopted the plan. Some of the names of other papers published are *Randall School Journal*, *Newark School News*, and *Avalon Loyal Citizen*.

III. The editorial staff and its duties. The first step is to choose the members of the editorial force. These are usually as follows: editor, assistant editor, associate editor, printers, business manager, school reporter, and local reporter. They may be elected at one of the meetings of the school society. A good plan is to have a nominating committee which consults with the teacher and chooses pupils who are best qualified to fill the different positions. After the report of this committee has been accepted, the newly elected members of the staff may begin their work. Materials, including hectograph or mimeograph, printing paper, and ink, must be secured; subscriptions need to be solicited to pay the cost of printing; news items and articles must be gathered; the first copy for the hectograph is then made; and the children are delighted to run off the first edition of *their* newspaper.

IV. How the paper is printed. Most of the papers are printed by means of a hectograph or a mimeograph. When the hectograph is used, all of the matter to be copied is first written in special copying ink on paper of the desired size, with the articles, items, etc., arranged in the order in which they are to appear in the paper. The typical school paper is a four-page, double-column publication with the name of the paper in bold type as the heading on the first page, and the rest of the paper in the handwriting of the pupils. This original copy is then spread face down upon the gelatin pad of the hectograph and allowed to remain for a few minutes, when the writing is transferred to the pad. After this, each sheet of paper laid upon the pad retains a copy

of the writing. With good ink, as many as one hundred legible copies can be obtained. As can be seen, this process is so simple that the pupils can easily be taught to do the work alone, thus relieving the teacher and at the same time training the children to be neat and accurate, and to shoulder responsibility. The mimeograph may also be used, but it is not quite so practicable for a country school, because it costs more and is harder for children to manipulate.

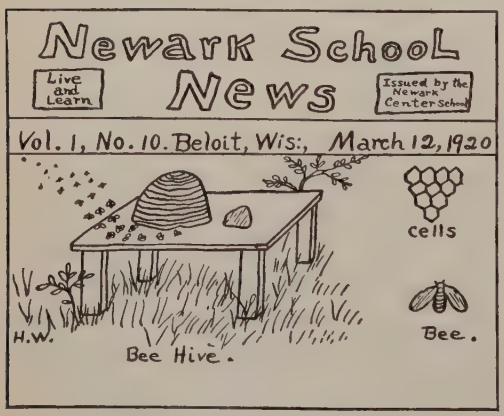
V. How to make a hectograph. In case the school does not possess a hectograph and cannot afford to buy a ready-made one, it is an easy matter to make one which will serve the purpose just as well by the following method: To $6\frac{1}{2}$ ounces of glycerin add 1 ounce of gelatin. Mix these ingredients thoroughly by heating for several hours over a salt-water bath. When poured into a shallow pan of any desired size and hardened by cooling, this composition makes a pad with a smooth, even surface which may be used in the manner described above.

VI. Correlation with school work. 1. *Language.* The success of language teaching depends upon the motive the children have for studying the subject. The publishing of the paper may be correlated with the language work in such a way as to furnish a motive for the best effort on the part of the children. Compositions may be written on such subjects as: "How to Beautify the School Grounds," "Our School Garden," "How to Make a Bird House," "The Spelling Contest," "A Trip to the Woods," or "Plans for Arbor Day," and the best ones should be chosen to publish in the school paper. Original stories and poems may also be written in the language class and published in the paper. The children may be given practice in the correct wording of short news items. In all this work much emphasis should be placed upon the selection of topics as well

as upon the choice of words. Only those topics that are of interest to the whole district should be chosen. The teacher must always be careful to look over everything that is to be published in the paper, to correct any mistakes, and to see that the material is suitable.

2. *Civics.* This work is also valuable as a means of giving training in civics. The school paper will contain many articles relating to questions which are confronting the American people — the proceedings of Congress or of the state legislature, results of elections, etc. In order to write upon such topics, it will be necessary for the pupils to do considerable reading and thinking, thus gaining definite knowledge and training in citizenship.

Then, too, the work of publishing the paper will require that the children work together harmoniously and efficiently.



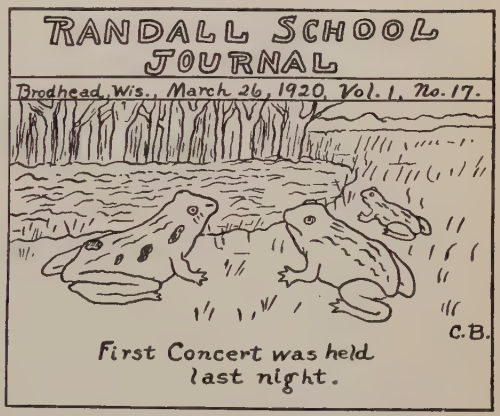
A good illustration for a school paper

Drawn by a country school pupil.

We must remember that one of our chief aims in teaching civics is to train citizens to coöperate with other people in solving and carrying out the problems and work of the community and nation. The children also gain a feeling of pride in their school and a deep interest in its welfare. When they become the men and women of to-morrow, will they not more certainly be the citizens who have the welfare of the community and country at heart? Surely,

training of this kind is an important part of the work in civics.

3. *Drawing and writing.* Let us see how the publishing of the paper may be correlated with the work in drawing and writing. Illustrations for the paper may be made during the drawing period, the best ones being chosen to publish. Many of the school papers have a large illustration on the front page each week, such as those shown on pages 90 and 91. These were first drawn by the pupils, and then traced with hectograph ink. The children may also draw cartoons or illustrations for advertisements. In this way special talent along these lines may be discovered and used, and at the same time all the chi dren are receiving training. The preparing of the paper furnishes an excellent motive for good work in penmanship, for only those who are good writers are given the privilege of making the first copy for the paper.



A good illustration for a school paper

Drawn by a country school pupil.

4. *Arithmetic.* The managing of the paper affords good practice in applying some of the principles of arithmetic and trains the children in business methods. Collecting money for subscriptions, making out bills, and keeping track of the receipts and expenditures are further examples of the work required. To illustrate : The county normal school

received a bill for sixty cents from a boy in the Beck School to pay for the subscription to the *Beck School News*, and the principal sent the lad a check. Problems suggested by this work may be assigned to arithmetic classes. For instance, "if we receive two cents for each copy of our school paper, how many copies must we sell to pay for fifty cents worth of printing paper; or, if it takes thirty seconds to print one copy of the paper on the hectograph, how many minutes will it take to print one hundred copies?" The pupils will be naturally and vitally interested in problems of this sort.

5. *Other studies.* The school paper will be of value in motivating and vitalizing the work in the other studies as well. Compositions on subjects in agriculture, history, geography, hygiene, and domestic science may be published, such as "Testing Milk," "A Trip to Niagara Falls," "Why We Should Kill Flies," and "How to Make Tomato Soup." Reports of work done in these classes may be made, and valuable suggestions and information may be given to the people of the district in this way. The wide-awake teacher will constantly be thinking of ways to correlate the publishing of the paper with all the work of the school.

VII. What the papers publish. The contents of many of these school papers are varied and interesting. Following are some random excerpts from the *Randall School Journal*, the *Newark School News*, and the *Beck School News*. They illustrate different types of material that may be published.

1. School Notes

Eleven pupils have made their district maps and have written the school-district history this year.

Some of the pupils correspond with pupils in other schools.

Gladys Lee received a letter from Iva Selck, of the Beck School, this week.

The school has two new Victrola records, *Humoresque* and *Hungarian Rhapsody.*

The drawings in our paper are free-hand by Crystal Burtness.

Elmer Synstegard has been absent this week on account of illness.

Miss Dean, the supervising teacher, visited our school on Tuesday. She talked to us about the study of birds, and we learned several new things.

2. Local News Items

Ed. Perkins, who has been suffering from an attack of pneumonia, is slowly recovering.

Charles Halley was a Beloit caller Wednesday.

Ole Brubakken has a new Chevrolet car.

The Ladies' Aid Society will meet with Mrs. O. D. Swain next Wednesday afternoon.

Mr. and Mrs. John Fast and family went to Rockton Wednesday to attend a wedding.

Mrs. John Swain found ninety-one eggs Wednesday! Who can beat that?

Henry Hansen took down his tobacco Thursday and has begun to strip it.

3. Editorial Personnel

BECK SCHOOL NEWS

Published weekly, two cents a copy, or sixty cents a year for 36 issues.

Earl Drevdahl — Editor.

Clifford Wells — Assistant editor.

Mabel Behling — Associate editor.

Elmer Schumacher — Business manager.

Harold Christianson — School reporter.

Pearl Saevre — Local reporter.

4. Announcements

A home-coming picnic will be held Wednesday, June 11, at the Beck School. Former pupils, teachers, and friends are invited. This picnic has been held annually for many years.

A box social to raise money for school purposes will be given at Newark Center School, Friday evening, March 26th. A good program has been planned. Ladies please bring boxes. *Be sure to come.*

5. Current Events

Decision of Supreme Court

The total loss to the government as a result of the Supreme Court decision that stock dividends are not taxable will exceed $25,000,000, according to opinion of treasury experts.

Tax Levy in Janesville

All but $7,000 of the Janesville tax levy has been collected, the city treasurer reported yesterday. The actual amount still unpaid is $6,909.19, on which amount the two per cent penalty must also be paid. Property on which the tax is not paid by Saturday of this week is subject to public sale.

6. Compositions and Articles by Pupils

Advantages of Consolidation

Some reasons why consolidation of country schools is a good thing are as follows:

1. It reduces tardiness;
2. there is better equipment;
3. better salaries are paid teachers;
4. attendance is more regular;
5. there is more time for classes;
6. better class work is done;
7. better management is secured;
8. there are greater returns for money spent.

M. S.

Spreading Diseases

Many diseases are caused by germs. These germs may be carried from one person to another in many ways Disease may be spread by germs from the mouth by coughing, sneezing, whispering, and kissing. Sometimes pupils put their pencils in their mouths and germs get in that way. They handle books and other things; then put their hands in their mouths. Using towels or handkerchiefs that some one else having an infectious disease has used may spread this disease. Exchanging food or other articles may be the cause of spreading disease. Dishes should always be clean and dust should be kept off from furniture. This will help to keep germs from being carried. If we remember to observe these things we shall not be so likely to catch some diseases.

C. W.

Russia

Russia is a country of Europe. Although it is the largest, it is very poor. It is like a child, because it does not know how to govern itself. It hasn't a good form of government and there are not many schools.

If the people were educated and knew how to farm, they could raise large crops because the soil is rich. The northern part is very cold, but in the southern part they could raise enough to support their country and send some away besides. The rainfall there is plentiful.

The people have some curious habits. When they are married they have a large festival, which lasts several days. Sometimes they build castles of ice and have them decorated. The Russians are very hospitable. They could learn very quickly if they had the chance to get an education.

H. H.

When children prepare their compositions for publication in their own paper, they take particular pains to do their best. The publication of a paper in a country school satisfies all of the usual requirements of a well-motivated social-project activity.

7. Original Poems

Jack Frost

The ground is covered with snowflakes white,
And when the nights are clear and bright,
Jack Frost goes by our windows sly,
And paints an image of the sky.
When we awake we can see flowers,
Trees, ferns, and shining towers.

I. C.

Spring

Mother Earth had a robe of white,
But she had hidden it from our sight;
She is now showing a robe of green,
And fresh leaves on the trees are seen.
Flowers are springing from their beds,
Straight through the covering over their heads,
Birds are singing from tree tops tall,
Wishing a Happy Easter to all.

M. B.

VIII. Relation to the project idea. We have been hearing a great deal in favor of the project method of teaching. Children are constantly solving problems and carrying out projects of their own outside of school. If this is the natural method of procedure for the child, why should not the school adopt it? A project has been defined as any purposeful activity determined upon and carried to a successful conclusion in its natural setting. Surely, as was suggested at the beginning, the publishing of a school paper is as purposeful an activity as one could wish to find. How successfully it is carried out will depend to a large extent upon the interest aroused by the teacher and upon the care with which she supervises the work. Those who have tried the plan agree that it is a project well worth undertaking. The setting is a perfectly natural one.

If this chapter is the means of stimulating more rural teachers in various parts of the country to make a trial of the school-paper idea, the writer will feel well repaid for the time and effort. There is probably no single form of motivation which has more distinct and certain advantages than a school publication. Boys and girls will look back upon the work done in connection with the paper as one of the most pleasant and profitable of all their school experiences.

Class Discussion Questions

1. Write seven attractive names for school papers for country schools.
2. Compute the total cost of printing a school paper for nine months if there are thirty-five weekly issues. The subscription price is fifty cents, and there are seventy-five subscribers. Make out the entire account for the year, showing the balance on hand June 1.
3. How can you correlate your work in English with the publication of the school paper? State several possibilities.
4. Make a list of twenty different kinds of materials which may properly find a place in the school paper.
5. Indicate seven departments which may be run regularly each week in the paper.
6. Make three sketches which might be printed in the school paper to illustrate phases of school life or work.
7. What kind of items should never be printed in a school paper?
8. Write out five disadvantages of consolidation of schools. Should these be printed in the paper also?
9. Write an article of two hundred words on "Our Christmas Program" which might find a place in the paper.
10. Write an original poem on "The Beauties of Autumn" for an October issue.
11. State five problems which might arise in publishing a school paper and suggest ways of solving these problems.

12. Show how a school paper can be of value in promoting a good school spirit.

13. In what ways can a school paper be used to bring about more sympathetic and active coöperation between school and home?

14. Make ten good arithmetic problems which are related to the publication of a paper.

15. As you read this chapter, select and write out several up-to-date current events items which would be suitable to print. Select three events of world interest, three of national, three of state, and three of the local county or town.

16. Tell how you would start this plan of a school paper in a school where they had never had one before and where they knew nothing about it.

Useful Supplementary Readings

Note: None of these magazine articles deals specifically with the rural school, but there may be suggestions for teachers who are particularly interested.

1. Anderson, Madge — "A Real School Paper"; *School Arts Magazine*, 13: 341–47, January, 1914.

2. Burkholder, E. C. — "Eighth Grade Newspaper"; *Elementary School Teacher*, 14: 418–22, May, 1914.

3. Dudley, A. W. — "Elementary School Periodicals"; *Teacher*, 15: 501–04, May, 1911.

4. Huff, B. M. — *How to Publish a School Paper;* Mentzer, Bush and Company. 1924.

5. Miles, Dudley — "Why Is a School Paper?"; *English Journal*, 5: 486–90, September, 1916.

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CHAPTER V

OBJECTIVES IN TEACHING

In the successful prosecution of any enterprise a clear conception of the goal to be reached or the end to be realized is of the greatest practical importance. Dr. Emerson E. White made this very plain over a generation ago in his various books published at that time. His famous discussion of ends in teaching did much to clarify the pedagogical atmosphere, although new and more vitalizing objectives have been found since that day. It was true in Dr. White's day and is, of course, still vitally true that all purposeless teaching is wasteful and ineffective teaching. Such terms as object, purpose, end, aim, goal, and objective have been used at various times in lesson plans and elsewhere to designate an element in all teaching procedure or method which needs to be stressed over and over again. In recent years certain fundamentally important and practical objectives have been recognized, resulting in more rational procedures and hence better training of children in our schools.

I. Significance of aim. The teacher who tries to do her work with no aim whatever is to be pitied. She is engaged in a sorry, unprofitable business unless she sees meaning in it all — true educational objectives which she is trying to realize. Any teacher who looks ahead and tries to image a finished product, at least as nearly finished as she can make it, will find that her imagination is stimulated, her enthusiasm kindled, and her work truly motivated. Objectives for the topic or subject, for class and

individual, for the day, the week, the month, the year, will make teaching definite as nothing else can, and will tend to give unity, organization, and effectiveness to all the activities of the school. True aim prevents waste of effort, gives definiteness to procedures, saves time, and prevents duplication in teaching. It is safe to say that all teachers may be classified into those who formulate and use objectives and those who do not. Perhaps the same thing can be said of successful workers in every field of human achievement. True aim gives essential meaning and motivation to all that we do.

II. What determines objectives? Teaching objectives are determined by the changes we desire to bring about in the child and by the means at hand, usually subject matter, with which we are to effect these changes. Objectives should be stated in terms of child growth and development. The subject matter is the means and the desired changes in the pupil constitute the end. Objectives are based upon the laws of human growth and development as these principles are worked out through the available agencies of the school. Both the logic of the subject matter and the psychology of the child mind are necessary in any true statement of the goal to be reached. On the one hand, it is impossible to set up an end to be reached solely in terms of mental, moral, or physical changes in the pupil, without, on the other hand, at the same time taking into consideration the tools or mechanism by which the changes are to be wrought. The social and civic needs of the child, the problems that he must solve as a member of society, should determine both the direction of his growth and development, and the teaching objectives.

III. Need for definite formulation. It will pay any teacher to write out her aims as accurately as she can for

each piece of work which she attempts to do. The very effort to formulate ideas into definite statements will do much to clarify these more or less hazy concepts, and at the same time will help to fix them in mind. Those teachers who have formed the habit of keeping good-sized notebooks, in which they set down both objectives and procedures, are the teachers who grow from year to year and who acquire constantly increasing skill in teaching. It is now possible to get books and course-of-study manuals in the different states which list the objectives of knowledge, attitude, and skill in the various subjects of the curriculum. A teacher's wording of her objectives will be the result of her ideas, her habits, and her attitudes, all of which will constantly change as her experience increases. Repeated revision of objectives will be the natural result of a teacher's desire and effort to improve her teaching.

IV. Objectives determine procedures. *What* is to be accomplished will naturally and inevitably precede and predetermine the *way* of securing the end desired. The *what* will determine the *how*, and the more clearly the goal is visualized, the more readily may the method or procedure be outlined. If a teacher wishes a child to know the main facts in the geography of the home district, that is one aim which may result in the use of certain teaching and drill procedures; whereas, if the objective is a map of the school district, drawn to scale, the procedure will necessarily be different. An "appreciation" aim in teaching the "Bugle Song" will demand the use of a different technique than that needed for a merely mechanical memorization objective. A good observer can readily identify a teacher's objectives by the manner in which she conducts her recitations. No teacher can rise higher than her objectives. What she does in teaching is the result of her aims.

V. Guiding value of objectives. Let us suppose that a teacher is beginning the subject of percentage, and that she desires to formulate something like the following objectives — is it not reasonable to expect that she will be so guided in her teaching as to make the likelihood of failure considerably less? These are only generalized objectives, not specific topic objectives:

1. To have the children understand that *per cent* means *by the hundreds.*
2. To make clear the relation between per cent and both decimal and common fractions, and to give pupils adequate practice in making changes in both directions.
3. To see that the pupils understand fully that 100% of any quantity or number means all of it.
4. To give much practice in changing certain fractions, as $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{2}{3}$, etc., to decimals and then to express them as per cents.
5. To teach that when the per cent sign is used, the decimal point for hundredths is not used. For example, what is the meaning of .05%? Of .05 with no % sign?
6. To see that the children get some appreciation of the practical applications of percentage to the everyday affairs of life.
7. To develop care in setting down figures that express per cents. Neatness and good form need to be insisted upon.
8. To develop the habit of dealing with certain personal and family problems in terms of percentage, for the sake of study and comparison. Many such practical problems of home and school should be used.

The above are merely illustrative of the guiding value of some definite statement of objectives in terms of knowledge, skills, ideals, or whatever end is found needful for the pupil. It is clear that the teacher must know both her subject or topic and also just what she desires to bring about in the personal development of the child.

VI. Purposeful teaching and learning. In Kilpatrick's definition of a project he stresses the importance of *purpose*, using such expressions as *purposeful activity* and *hearty purposeful act*. True purpose implies a personal need which the realization of the purpose will tend to satisfy. In the best types of teaching and learning the problem element is always found, and in the presence of a personal problem, the solution to which is desired, the setting up of objectives is a necessary part of both the teaching process and the learning process. In the best modern teaching technique effort is always made to establish a true learning situation which will produce the ends desired in knowledge, ideals, skills, appreciations, or habits. It is likely that we have made too much of teaching and not enough of learning. When attention is brought to bear upon learning activities, we think of the pupil and of the changes that we wish to bring about. Learning with definite objectives in view demands purposeful teaching, that is, dynamic teaching — the only kind *that counts*, as Professor Hosic states it.

VII. Varieties of objectives. The program of a rural school, whether we think of the entire work of the school as a social institution for the training of children, or whether we think of the daily schedule of classes, calls for many necessary objectives. There are both general and specific subject objectives; similarly there are topic and grade objectives. Some objectives pertain to the acquisition of knowledge; others contemplate skills, abilities, habits; still others look to the building up of ideals, appreciations, tastes, and the like. Such ends are largely in the field of intellectual training, but the teacher deals with the whole child — body, mind, and moral nature. For example, definite health *objectives* have become one of the most fruitful and significant features of health instruction during

the past ten, fifteen, or twenty years. We are at least beginning to understand the tremendous importance of the physical or bodily basis. Then, too, during the past quarter century particularly we have come to a new realization of the need for something concrete and definite in the way of character and citizenship training, thus requiring a restatement of our objectives in the field of character building.

VIII. Recitation objectives. During the recitation period the teacher may teach, or drill, or test, and thus there may be teaching, drilling, and testing objectives. By the use of modern tests the teacher may readily discover the information which the pupil possesses as a result of his study. There may be not only tests of knowledge, but also tests of ability to apply, as in reading, writing, and other activities. Present-day drill materials, whether for use during class time or at the pupil's desk, are much superior to the former uninteresting and deadening drill which the old-time schoolmaster applied. The teacher will also plan to correct any false ideas which the children may have, and to add to the information they have obtained. The teacher needs to possess knowledge over and above that of the child, so that she can supplement and quicken instruction as occasion demands. The recitation period affords the best opportunity to stimulate and guide the pupils in true thinking. The use of the thought-provoking questions in the assignment will do much to train pupils in independent thinking. The teacher should plan deliberately to mingle such thought questions with those of the pure memory or fact variety, which too often predominate with many teachers.

Every recitation period should offer the child a chance to talk and to ask questions. Self-expression must be encouraged, stimulated, and guided. It is not too much to say that training in the use of correct English should be a

prominent objective of most recitations. This aim, together with that of increased power in silent reading, should occupy a large place in the teacher's purposes and plans. Often during class time books will be opened and a suggestive, guiding question from the teacher will set the pupils to looking for the answer. Doubtless many times pupils will need to " read between the lines," as well. The recitation period should not be looked upon chiefly as a time for testing. Usually testing can be disposed of quickly, and then the rest of the time can be used to direct the pupils in the solution of problems, thus preparing them for independent study at their seats. Many times fresh material will be used during class periods. All will depend upon the teacher's aims, or objectives, which should be determined by the needs of the children. Their further increase of personal power is the guiding principle to be kept in mind.

IX. Knowledge aims. The knowledge aim has been and still is the predominating aim of most country teachers as well as of those in urban schools. Too often this knowledge has been the mere undigested and unrelated facts of the textbooks, regardless of the value or the use to which the knowledge could ever be put. The knowledge aim is an important aim providing the kind of material selected is of practical value and has meaning for the child on his level of attainment. Skills and appreciations are both dependent upon an understanding of facts; when ideas are used as the basis for true skill and appreciation they are of the greatest importance. In every good course of study knowledge objectives are given an important place, and properly so; and when the teacher understands that the knowledge material should be meaningful, related, usable, it then becomes a very reasonable and acceptable objective. " Grade objectives are the changes desired in children as

the result of what is to be taught in a particular subject or related subjects. These objectives are the knowledges, skills, habits, appreciations, and attitudes that should be the outcomes of the work done by and with the children."

X. Knowledge *vs.* skill. Many times merely knowing is not sufficient for the needs of life. We need to *know*, but we also must be able to *do*. In the fields of the manual and the domestic arts this is very evident. It is not enough that a boy can name the parts of a smoothing plane or is able to tell merely how to sharpen a knife and to use a plane; he must be able to give practical demonstration of both his ability and knowledge in the actual use of the tool — demonstrate, for example, that he can plane a board well. The girl may be able to write a very good essay on the subject of bread making, but a good loaf of bread is what the family demands of her. In the work of the school too often the child is left with only inactive or dead knowledge when he should be given opportunity to turn his possession of facts into active skill and practical ability. His power to read, for example, must be turned to account in finding the wealth of information which the library holds for him. Always the rural teacher should be thinking of ways in which knowledge, as such, can be used practically. Facts are of precious little value unless they can be used in the end to solve practical, personal problems.

XI. Development of attitudes. It is only within comparatively recent years that we have been considering the importance of attitudes, ideals, appreciations, and the like. Now we are beginning to realize the tremendous importance of these mental products. We are now learning that ideals and attitudes may be of vastly greater value than mere ideas. Attitudes have indeed always been by-products of teaching, but it is only recently that we have come to under-

stand in part that these by-products may be of more value in the making of a life and a living than the standard results of teaching in the way of knowledge. One has only to read such a book as that of Charters on *The Teaching of Ideals* to see the significance of what have heretofore been largely considered intangible mental results and commonly set aside as of no practical use in school work. Professor Charters makes it plain that the motive power of ideals and attitudes gives them a highly significant place in the development of any personality.

The writer has often noticed that many young women come through a high-school course in literature with a distinct distaste for the study. This is surely a decidedly unfortunate outcome. Some teacher or teachers along the way were unsuccessful in inculcating a liking for good reading; that is, the attitude toward the subject matter became rather one of dislike and boredom. Think of this as a lifelong attitude, which it too often actually is. Consider the opposite attitude — one of genuine interest and appreciation — what a difference it makes in the life enjoyment of the individual! One who likes to read good books will be a lifelong student; one who hates books will never read them. That teacher of history, to mention another subject, is most successful who develops a taste and a liking for historical reading. Masterful, indeed, is any teacher who is able to develop those strong, receptive attitudes toward great life interests, which will tend to enlarge and to ennoble the life. Attitude is of first-class significance and should be consciously developed.

XII. Drill objectives. Drill is necessary in order to fix in the minds of children those hundreds of facts which are the proper and necessary products o an elementary education. Without exact and ready knowledge of num-

ber facts, of locations in geography, of the outstanding events in American history, of the fundamentals of local, state, and national governments, and of all the other *knowledges* of the course of study, the child will be sorely handicapped either in his further quest for an education or in the practical affairs of life. Moreover, drill, or practice, is necessary in perfecting those skills and facilities which the school should give in silent and oral reading, in writing, in public speaking, in written composition, and in all the rest. It is vastly important for the teacher to know the standard, well-recognized objectives in the work of drilling. In recent years new drill material has come into use, and it is now possible to purchase from various publishing houses individual practice, or work, books for the use of the child at his desk in reading, arithmetic, and other subjects. This is tested drill material which produces results.

The more important objectives relating to drill which the teacher needs to understand and appreciate are the following:

1. Try to make plain to the pupil the *need* for the particular drill so far as his own interests and success are concerned.
2. Teach the child how to *graph* his own *progress* from day to day, so that he will have his gains and losses vividly in consciousness.
3. Remember that any drill which is not *attentive repetition* is wasteful in time and effort. The child must be taught earnestly to focus his attention upon what he is doing.
4. Drills should not be continued to the point of weariness. *Short drill periods*, with longer intervals of relaxation and rest, are very important.
5. *Materials* for drill exercises should be *selected* with care. Teachers often ask children to memorize subject matter or to practice exercises which are not at all suitable.
6. The *emotional attitude* of the child should be one of pleasure,

as a rule. If the child hates the practice or drill, little good will come of it. Thorndike's law of effect has particular application here.

7. Drills should be continued long enough to produce *results.* Some teachers stop short of that attainment in skill which is the central aim of the practice.

8. When intrinsic interest is lacking, it is proper and necessary to make use of *artific al mot vation* in the form of attractive devices, games, play, and the like.

9. It is important, from the standpoint of attitudes, to make use of adequate means in arousing a *child's pride* in mastery and his desire for skillful performance. Such an attitude will result in wanting to practice until greater perfection is attained.

10. Drills should be *varied* so as to avoid monotony. In this day, with a vast number of drill materials to select from, there is no excuse for teachers continuing the same device day after day.

XIII. Purposeful testing. There is no teaching procedure in which the exact stating of specific objectives would be of greater service than in the work of testing. Teachers have tested pupils from time immemorial, both orally and by written tests or examinations. In fact, probably the majority of teachers, even at the present day, do little but test, for the reason that real teaching is a much more difficult process. However, teachers are usually not conscious of definite purposes in their testing. They do not see or sense the outcome in the training and development of the child. Too often the giving of formal weekly or monthly tests, together with semester examinations, for the purpose of grading, marking, and promoting, has been the sole use of testing procedures. The questions used and the method of marking have often made these tests anything but desirable from an educational point of view. They have not been true criteria by which to judge a pupil's progress, and many evils have grown up in connection with their use.

Modern standardized objective tests have no doubt come to stay in the fields of testing both intelligence and achievement or progress. Frequently, a great deal of time, money, and effort have been expended upon these tests without any clear educational outcomes, because objectives were not clearly established at the beginning. Not only do we have the standardized *commercial* tests, but likewise the use of the *teacher-made* yes-no, true-false, and completion tests, as well as several other varieties — all a part of the general teaching machinery. If teachers could more commonly see the diagnostic or other teaching value of these, as well as of the older type, of tests and examinations, there would be less waste of school effort. The new tests, while highly objective in character, do not usually test for thought processes or offer liberal opportunity for the pupil's expression in English. Memory results very largely constitute the subject matter of these objective tests. Teachers should understand and realize this fact. Purposeful testing will always take note of the child's development, whether pretests, diagnostic tests, or any other variety are used; and if thus used rationally, they will become an important tool in teaching, motivating the work and making it truly educational.

XIV. Objectives in study. Modern practice is stressing study objectives and procedures to a far greater extent than formerly. Instead of "hearing a recitation" in time-honored form, it has now become common in the best schools to use the class time whenever necessary to prepare pupils for successful study. Study is now understood to be a more practical matter than reciting. Pupils do not go to school to recite. They go to school to learn how to work, how to secure knowledge from the printed page independently, and how to formulate and how to solve personally inter-

esting and profitable problems. Most teachers themselves do not know how to study and they therefore do not know how to teach children to study. During the past decade or less several publishing houses have brought out *silent* or *study* readers which are doing much to solve the problem of study. Through a course of graded lessons, starting sometimes even with first-grade children, there is now a continuous training in the development of study skills and habits which should increasingly produce a more independent and a more successful group of high-school students. In the past many of these young people have floundered around over their heads most of the time in a sea of subject matter largely beyond their power of mastery.

Probably what is needed now most of all is the transference of the study skills acquired in silent-reading exercises to other fields of study such as geography, arithmetic, and history. We need new textbooks which will give carefully graded lessons, using arithmetic, geography, history, or other materials for study purposes. Such texts will doubtless appear at an early date, as the need for them is now becoming increasingly urgent. There will always be a place for the teacher in the work of supervised study, but increasingly children must be taught to find their own way independently in the solution of their own problems. This can never come about until the necessary study skills, abilities, and habits are carefully developed as a part of the daily school training. The teacher should become more acutely conscious of what happens when one studies as a means for solving personally interesting and important problems. In order to bring this study problem more vividly before the teacher's mind several illustrative study objectives are here stated in terms of abilities:

1. Ability to use the dictionary successfully in solving word and other problems.

2. Ability to get needed information from reference books of all kinds.

3. Ability to make out good questions bearing upon any subject or topic, both fact questions and thought questions.

4. Ability to make outlines of subject matter, arranging points in order of importance.

5. Ability to get the central thought of a paragraph, stanza, or other unit.

6. Ability to select and arrange in order data bearing upon any problem.

7. Ability to draw conclusions from a set of data, qualifying such deductions according to the validity of the proof.

8. Ability to judge the worth or value of textbook statements or of those found elsewhere in books, bulletins, magazines, or newspapers.

9. Ability to run down a topic, using all the material in the school for this purpose.

10. Ability to make a good bibliography arranged in proper form, and bearing, for example, upon certain topics in history, agriculture, or other subject.

11. Ability to set up purposes or problems pertaining to a given subject of investigation.

12. Ability to add significant supplementary material to the statements made in the text or other book.

13. Ability to summarize discussions in geography, reading, history, and other subjects.

14. Ability to analyze subject matter for the purpose of selecting the salient facts.

15. Ability to apply or use the facts found in textbooks and elsewhere.

16. Ability to select statements to prove a proposition, arranging such proof according to its value for the purpose.

17. Ability to detect the relative importance of textbook statements.

18. Ability to maintain a critical attitude toward a problem and to require sufficient data for drawing conclusions.

19. Ability to suggest titles for paragraphs, stories, poems, or other units.

20. Ability to arrange matter on a page in suitable form with proper subordination of materials.

XV. Assignment aims. Assign — study — recite! This has indeed been a tragic trio of formal, deadening school practice, and it is surely one which still prevails in too many schools. Too often the assignment exercise, if there really has been one, has not truly prepared the children for independent study, and the study — usually a travesty on the name — has looked forward merely to a *re-citation*, a saying over of the unrelated, irrelevant, meaningless words and phrases of the book. If the teacher can, however, work out a series of definite, meaningful assignment objectives in terms both of subject matter and of child nature and needs, then all of the work will take on new life and value. The study can rise no higher than the assignment, and the nature of the recitation will be determined by both the assignment and the study. The great purpose of the assignment, which should often be a genuine teaching exercise, is to do everything that will fully direct children in the work they are to do before the class meets again. Often the assignment is a preparatory teaching exercise, which may very profitably take the time of a whole class period, if necessary.

The main objectives for a teacher to keep in mind are the following: (1) The assignment should be so stimulating as to produce a desire to do the work. If the pupils sense a real personal need, this will of course be true. This emotional element of interest is very important from the standpoint of motivation. (2) The assignment should

take into consideration those difficulties for which pupils will need help, including, of course, difficult words. To know and realize the child's difficulties it is necessary that the teacher go over the ground in advance of the class. (3) The length of the assignment should be carefully graded, and adjusted to the abilities of the pupils and their time for study and preparation. Many young teachers assign either too much or too little, because of lack of experience. (4) The assignment should be so definite and clear that the pupils will not only know what and how to prepare the work through study, but they will also know exactly how the teacher expects them to deliver the material during class time. (5) Some assignments may be given to all of the class and some to individual pupils. Individual assignments will often produce better results in pupil training because they can be more closely adapted to the child's personal ability and needs. (6) The assignment should often grow out of class discussion and may therefore be made at any time during the period. In no case should a hurried assignment be made at the close of the class period. (7) The assignment should look forward not only to book study, but to any other educational activity in which the child may engage. Maps may be drawn or examined, corn may be brought from home, notebooks may be prepared, graphs may be made, coloring may be done, the library may be used — in fact, anything that serves the main purpose. (8) The assignment may require the child to report information, to demonstrate his skill, to talk from notes, to do thinking on new problems, to read a poem appreciatively, and so on. (9) Flexible, two- and three-level assignments may sometimes be made in adapting requirements to varying capacities. This practice may be overworked, however. (10) Often a study-recitation

exercise should be used with books open, when the entire advance lesson is carefully gone over. This may take considerable time, but it is profitable use of time.

XVI. Visualizing the end. It is always beneficial for the teacher to try to picture mentally the entire teaching process, which includes the laying out of the work, and then the necessary steps in getting it done, together with the motivating expedients which must be used. The best teachers visualize their objectives constantly. They look back and they look ahead in their endeavor to adapt their teaching to the needs and the abilities of the individual child. Before any class is called to the front for a recitation, it will be well for the teacher to go over in her mind both what she is going to expect of the children and what educational results she intends to produce during the class period. The habit of visualizing is a good one to form, and if more teachers had this practice, there would be fewer worse than wasted recitations. In all this visualizing, the child — his responses and his mental, moral, and physical growth — should be kept conspicuously in the foreground. Constantly picture the subject matter as the means for changing the child for the better.

XVII. Realizing objectives. The clear statement of objectives will go a long way in aiding the teacher to realize them in her teaching, but more than mere formulation is necessary. If the objective calls for acquisition of knowledge, the teacher should think of how the child is to acquire this. Should he get it from books, or from the teacher's oral presentation, or from the world of nature, or elsewhere? If the facts are to be found in books, which particular ones are to be used — dictionary, encyclopedia, other library books, the textbook, other texts, or what? Exact, careful guidance is needed here. The child needs to be instructed

in what to find, where to find it, and how to deliver it. If an objective calls for skill in doing, then it will be necessary for the teacher to arrange for the child's practice or drill. If he is to be trained to sketch an outline map of South America, the teacher will need to consider what tools and steps are needed to secure this result. No matter whether it is knowledge, or skill, or ideal, or appreciation, objectives cannot be realized until the teacher makes detailed arrangements for the accomplishment of her purpose.

XVIII. Objectives and the textbook. The textbook is the most common and the most necessary and important tool used by the teacher and her pupils. In the working out of objectives, the textbook will be the main instrument for the accomplishment of the teacher's purposes. At the present time authors and publishers are preparing books of such excellent quality educationally and mechanically that teachers should find in these modern texts the means of solving many, if not most, of their teaching problems. In her attempt to formulate and to realize teaching objectives the teacher should always make use of the text, and in country schools especially only the best should be used. In the text the teacher will not only find the subject matter, but also many times suggestions for teaching it. The teacher should read the preface, the introduction, and all of the helps scattered through the book. If the publishers print a manual, as they now often do, it will pay the teacher to become thoroughly familiar with it. In the stating and in the realizing of objectives the text is the indispensable basis for both teacher and pupil. Getting the most out of a textbook is a fine art which needs constant cultivation.

XIX. Particular subject aims. Different subjects require different teaching objectives. The objectives in

arithmetic are wholly different from those in spelling, for example. To establish speed and accuracy in simple arithmetical combinations is one thing, and to develop the habit of consulting individual dictionaries or word lists or the text, when in doubt about a word, is quite another thing. In some subjects the knowledge aim predominates, while in others skill is the essential outcome. In still others, where music, poems, or pictures are concerned, it may be that appreciation is the chief objective. In learning the main events in our nation's history the knowledge aim will probably predominate; but in such subjects as writing and oral and written English, skills, abilities, and habits loom large. It is evident that the teacher will not be able to state aims or to realize their significance until she appreciates what type of training a particular subject is expected to give, in the main. It should, however, be kept in mind that in the teaching of all subjects the by-products, such as appreciations, ideals, interests, and others, are after all not only inevitable but highly desirable teaching results, or outcomes, as Bagley calls them.

XX. General *vs.* specific aims. Objectives may be so general as to cover the entire field of education or of life itself, or they may deal with the teaching of one bit of subject matter, such as the word *privilege* or the sum of three and eight. Very general objectives are indefinite and vague and of very little use to the working teacher. Even grade and subject objectives are of little value until reduced to concrete, practical particulars. "To teach the child the mathematical type of thought" is a more general objective than "to secure speed and accuracy in the four fundamental processes using integers and simple fractions in real situations." The second statement still needs to be broken up into dozens of specific, concrete aims if the

actual teaching is to be affected. It is safe to say that one of the great gains of the past decade in the discussion of teaching has been the evident tendency to deal with actual learning situations, involving definite pupil needs and difficulties, and specific, concrete items of subject matter.

XXI. Control objectives. Teaching always involves managing. Teaching and managing are as closely related as the inside and outside of a saucer. They cannot be separated. The best teaching cannot go on unless there is a good school spirit, manifested in the quiet, orderly activity of the children. The kind of order which a teacher has will depend on her own objectives. What is her ideal of good control? What is her aim in the matter of freedom of movement? To what extent does she believe in permitting children to communicate with one another? What standards does she have relative to the behavior of children in the building on rainy days when they cannot go out to play? What freedom and what restrictions does she have in mind for the play periods? The teacher's entire control of the school situation will be wholly determined by her standards, objectives, ideals. This is not the place to discuss control objectives in detail. It would, however, be a very helpful thing for the teacher to put on paper in definite form the aims or purposes she intends to accomplish through her control.

XXII. Purposeful health training. Health and character are two fields of school responsibility and service which the teacher is not very likely to stress too much. At the present time there are various agencies, such as the state board of health and the county nurse, which the country teacher can make use of greatly to her advantage and that of her pupils. There are daily opportunities in a country school for definite health training, providing the

teacher sets up correct guiding objectives for her activities. In connection with the use of the hot noon lunch and the conducting of playground activities, to mention but two situations, there is abundant place for both instruction and training in most important health habits. The thoughtful teacher will see that the child receives practical guiding knowledge as to choice of foods and care of the eyes, ears, teeth, etc., but she will also understand that any statement of objectives which leaves out ideals and habits is entirely inadequate. Health is largely a matter of possessing a set of sane, correct habits, and the teacher's aims should comprise training for the formation of these personal habits.

XXIII. Illustrative aims. In order to illustrate the formal statement of general objectives, several are here given in five different elementary subjects:

A. Reading. (1) To cultivate a desire to read through increasing mastery of the mechanics of reading. (2) To develop the ability to read in natural conversational tones. (3) To give the ability to solve simple problems in silent reading in the second grade. (4) To develop a growing appreciation of style in the upper grades. *B. Arithmetic.* (5) To develop ability to apply arithmetical knowledge in a variety of ways. (6) To develop the habits of approximating, testing, and verifying in the solution of problems. (7) To secure some appreciation of thrift and economy as the personal obligation of every good citizen. (8) To develop an acceptable accuracy and facility in the four fundamental processes. *C. Language.* (9) To stimulate free, spontaneous expression in response to a need. (10) To stimulate imagination through the study of the beautiful in story, poetry, or picture. (11) To correct the most common errors of speech. (12) To develop ability to organize ideas in order to express thoughts effectively.

D. Civics. (13) To aid the child to realize that he is a member of several responsible and helpful social groups. (14) To emphasize the relation of the welfare of the individual to the common good. (15) To train in specific habits which make for good citizenship. (16) To give opportunity in the school for the exercise of social and civic duties and responsibilities. *E. Agriculture.* (17) To develop an appreciation of country life. (18) To enlarge and organize certain farm experiences through first-hand contacts, field trips, readings, and discussions. (19) To teach such common facts relative to the farming business as will arouse an interest in further information to be gained later through reading bulletins, attending farmers' institutes, and in other ways. (20) To formulate the main problems connected with both the productive and the business phases of farming as exemplified in the particular locality of the school.[1]

XXIV. Individual and class aims. The day of individualized instruction is at hand; this subject will be more fully discussed in the following chapter. Just here the author's purpose is to show that the teacher may establish objectives for an entire class, or she may consider individual needs which will demand individual aims. Children vary greatly in their ability and in the progress which they make. In reading, for example, with modern means of diagnosis, it is now possible to discover a number of causes for individual variations in speed, comprehension, and other reading abilities. It is probable that different members of the class will require different treatment, including the use of different drill procedures. In such a subject as reading there are objectives for the entire grade, say, the second; but

[1] For several of these statements of objectives the author is indebted to the Wisconsin Course of Study.

because of varying native capacity and differing environmental influences, each child will to some extent require special consideration. What is true in reading is also true in language, arithmetic, spelling, and all other subjects. The more a teacher studies an individual child, the more will she be inclined to think of the particular child's needs, and to use some special aims in order to deal fairly by the child. Individualized instruction demands individual objectives to some extent. Even measured by minimum essentials, the outcomes vary greatly.

XXV. Socializing aims and procedures. The social aim should guide and characterize all of the teacher's activities. The school is a social institution engaged in the business of preparing boys and girls for active participation in a social and increasingly democratic world. Good teachers have always socialized their purposes and their procedures whether they have been conscious of the fact or not. The formal socialized recitation, which has too often been not much more than a farce, is not at all necessary in order to have social objectives and practices. Many times, however, the teacher will do well definitely to plan for social activities in which the spirit of good will and cooperation is especially emphasized. This can be done in connection with the school society, the hot-lunch procedure, the mothers' meeting, the Halloween Party, Thanksgiving and Christmas festivals, and in other ways and on other occasions. In the statement of all objectives there should be a generous mingling of the social purpose and the social spirit. In the best schools there is a genuine social consciousness and atmosphere which is apparent to a competent observer in even a brief visit. Successful teachers have always socialized recitations and other activities, because this is a perfectly natural, normal, and human thing to do.

Class Discussion Questions

1. Find a good definition of objective or make one yourself. Which term do you prefer: object, purpose, end, aim, goal, objective? Why?

2. Show the need for *aim* in other work besides that of the school. Give three good illustrations. What will objectives do for you in undertaking to save money?

3. How can you tell whether a teacher is being guided by real purposes or not?

4. What is the relation of subject matter to the growth and development of the pupil?

5. Why is it well to write out one's objectives in a lesson-plan notebook? What will cause a change in the wording of these objectives from time to time?

6. List five objectives to guide the teacher in her teaching of spelling. Of writing.

7. What is the relation between teaching and learning? Is it possible that we have talked about teaching too much and about learning not enough? Discuss this.

8. Show that there may be knowledge aims, skill or ability aims, and ideal or attitude aims in the teaching of "Snow Bound."

9. State five character objectives which a country teacher should not lose sight of. What is the chief aim of teaching civics in a country school?

10. Mention five general aims or objectives which a teacher should have in mind before she calls any class to the recitation seats.

11. What objectives can be realized by the use of the modern standardized tests? By the use of teacher-made tests?

12. State the essential characteristics of a successful drill lesson. What should be the net result?

13. In the teaching of writing which are more important: knowledge objectives or skill objectives? Show that both are present. State five skill aims in teaching writing.

14. State five aims in teaching third- and fourth-grade reading. State five objectives to be used in teaching fifth-grade geography.

15. Name seven characteristics of an orderly, working school.

16. Write out ten rules for the teacher's use to guide her in testing her pupils.

17. State one general aim for the teaching of agriculture in a rural school. State three subordinate aims.

18. May all teaching objectives be realized through the use of the textbook only? Illustrate by stating several objectives.

19. When should the assignment be a preparatory exercise, taking possibly most of the period? Show that the assignment may be a true teaching exercise.

20. What is the relation between study and the recitation? Why may *assign-study-recite* be a "tragic trio"? Should the recitation prepare for study or *vice versa?* Why?

Useful Supplementary Readings

1. Anderson, C. J., Barr, A. S., and Bush, Maybell G. — *Visiting the Teacher at Work;* D. Appleton and Company. 1925.

2. Anderson, C. J., and Davidson, Isobel — *Reading Objectives;* Laurel Book Company. 1925.

3. Bagley, W. C., and Keith, J. A. H. — *An Introduction to Teaching;* The Macmillan Company. 1924.

4. Barnes, Ina — *Rural School Management;* The Macmillan Company. 1923.

5. Betts, C. H. — *Classroom Method and Management;* Bobbs-Merrill Company. 1917.

6. Cameron, E. H. — *Educational Psychology;* The Century Company. 1927.

7. Charters, W. W. — *Teaching the Common Branches* (*Revised*); Houghton Mifflin Company. 1927.

8. Charters, W. W. — *Teaching of Ideals;* The Macmillan Company. 1928.

9. Earhart, Lida B. — *Types of Teaching;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1915.

10. Fitzpatrick, E. B. — *Present-Day Standards of Teaching;* F. A. Owen Publishing Company. 1926.

11. Freeland, G. F. — *The Improvement of Teaching;* The Macmillan Company. 1925.

12. Kilpatrick, W. H. — *Foundations of Method;* The Macmillan Company. 1925.

13. Lowth, F. J. — *Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher;* The Macmillan Company. 1926.

14. Lyman, R. L. — *The Mind at Work;* Scott, Foresman and Company. 1924.

15. McMurry, F. M. — *How to Study and Teaching How to Study;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1909.

16. Pittman, M. G. — *Successful Teaching in Rural Schools;* American Book Company. 1922.

17. Stormzand, M. J. — *Progressive Methods of Teaching;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1924.

18. Stormzand, M. J., and McKee, Jane W. — *The Progressive Primary Teacher;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1928.

19. Thayer, V. T. — *The Passing of the Recitation;* D. C. Heath and Company. 1928.

20. Yoakam, G. A. — *Reading and Study;* The Macmillan Company. 1928.

CHAPTER VI

INSTRUCTION — INDIVIDUAL AND SOCIAL

It is only within very recent years that serious efforts have been made to "discover the individual." Mass instruction as found in our system of grades has become almost universal. It is surely high time that we definitely locate the individual in order to save him from getting completely lost in the crowd. The doctrine of individual differences, as set forth by Thorndike and others, is based upon most painstaking scientific investigation, bringing to light indisputable evidence. The facts prove that men are never duplicates of one another and that varying educational treatment is needed to meet widely differing individual capacities. Starch says that "if we measure a group of pupils in a given grade or class, we find that on the average the best pupil is able to do from two to twenty-five times as much as the poorest pupil, or is able to do the same task from two to twenty-five times as well as the poorest pupil." It is not unusual to find that in a given class of thirty sixth-grade pupils, where the average *chronological* age is about twelve and one-half years, the *mental* ages may easily, and often do, range approximately from eight to fifteen.

When the teacher discovers the individual capacities of her pupils, her next problem will be to accept each child's given plane of mentality and achievement as her starting point, and by means of varying procedures, some individualized and some socialized, help him to rise to higher levels of achievement. Instruction needs to be socialized because the

school is preparing pupils for participation in a social world. The socialization of instruction does not necessarily mean the use of the socialized recitation, though this type of procedure may prove effective in the hands of a teacher who understands its objectives, nature, and spirit. In every good school the general spiritual atmosphere is social in nature and effect, much of the instruction being socialized because the teacher realizes that the social aim is directed toward preparation for democracy. The formal, question-and-answer, bookish recitation still obtains in probably the majority of rural schools, and such instruction is of course far from socialized and also far from being adequate preparation for social efficiency. It is to help in some degree to overcome or counteract this deadening orthodox recitation procedure that this chapter is written. The discussion which follows is in effect a plea for a more rational way of teaching, both individualized and socialized.

I. Thorndike's great contribution. Edward L. Thorndike of Teachers College was probably the first educational psychologist fully to realize the meaning and significance of individual differences. In his epoch-making work on educational psychology which appeared some fifteen years ago, Thorndike devoted one of the three parts, about one fourth, of his briefer treatise to a discussion of individual differences. He makes it evident that there is a great variation in individuals due to heredity, to sex, to race, to relative maturity, and to environment. Because of these conspicuous and ever-present differences the school must adapt its instruction to the needs of the individual if it is to succeed in bringing about those changes in intellect, character, and skill which the demands of social living make imperative.

It should be realized that Thorndike bases his analysis and discussion, not upon purely theoretical considerations,

but rather upon direct experimental observation and research. For a brief discussion of Thorndike's ideas the young student is referred to a volume of the Riverside Monographs entitled *Individuality*, published by Houghton Mifflin Company.

II. Various attempts to individualize. In the early days in both Europe and America instruction was largely individual, particularly in the lower grades. Our present system of grades and of class instruction is relatively new in the history of education. Though thinking men and women have all along seen that while there are certain great advantages in the simultaneous instruction of *groups* of pupils, it is also true that individual treatment because of individual differences is a vital necessity if the individual child is to be developed for the best. So we have had the "Pueblo Plan," the "Batavia System," the "Winnetka Plan," the "Dalton Plan," and others. The "Pueblo Plan," so called because it was first used in the schools of Pueblo, Colorado, originated nearly forty years ago and was the work of Preston W. Search, who gives an account of his scheme of individualized instruction in his book *The Ideal School.*

Lack of space forbids a full and detailed discussion of all the various efforts to counteract the evils of the graded system. Frederick Burk, late president of the San Francisco Teachers College, did much during the later years of his life to break up the "lockstep" of the schools by doing away with prescribed lessons and permitting each pupil to proceed at his own rate. He stated that the results were electrifying, and that the amount of work done was greatly increased. Superintendent C. W. Washburne of Winnetka, Illinois, is probably the greatest present-day advocate of individual instruction, and the "Winnetka Plan," whether wholly sound or not, has become famous through the inven-

tive and promotional ability of Superintendent Washburne, who was a student of Dr. Burk's.

Superintendent Washburne has presented his plan to audiences throughout the United States, has written a large number of magazine articles, has prepared textbooks based on his ideas, and has directed the preparation of Part II of the *Twenty-Fourth Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education*, entitled "Adapting the Schools to Individual Differences." The "Winnetka Plan" does away with the standard recitation procedure, and in place of this a course of minimum essentials is offered to each pupil who proceeds to master the essentials at his own rate of speed. The function of the teacher is to direct the activities of the child, to check up on his progress, and to see that each pupil is permitted and, moreover, encouraged to work up to his individual capacity. The forenoon is devoted to individual tasks and the afternoon is given over to various forms of socialized activities and procedures.

Briefly, after several years of experiment at Winnetka, the advantages of the system which seem to stand out are the following:[1]

1. There is better drill adaptation and greater individual mastery of fundamentals than in the older orthodox system.
2. Less retardation exists; repetition of grades is not found; more children make satisfactory progress.
3. Opportunity for socialized activities of various kinds is increased.
4. Standardized tests seem to show better results in reading, language, and arithmetic.
5. Winnetka grade pupils do at least as well as others in the high school.

[1] Adapted from *Twenty-Fourth Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education.*

6. Teachers are not overworked.
7. The cost of the schools is not increased; when viewed in some aspects there may be even less cost.

Some of the limitations are here stated in the form of questions, as problems not yet wholly settled :

1. Are pupils as attentive, on the whole?
2. Is as good work done in content subjects as in the usual grades?
3. Does the Winnetka socialized program train the individual as well as other creative activities do in other schools?
4. Are the individual work and the group activities properly related in the Winnetka system?
5. Do pupils learn to apply facts when the learning is divorced from social settings?

The " Dalton Plan " was first used in Dalton, Massachusetts, by Miss Helen Parkhurst. It has been introduced into various parts of this country and is used quite extensively in England. The subject matter in this system is organized into *jobs* of work which the pupils are under *contract* to attack and complete according to individual ability and at varying rates of progress. The young teacher will find a good description of the " Batavia System," a combination of class and individual instruction, in W. C. Bagley's *Classroom Management.*[1]

The platoon school is the *work-study-play* type of school, and was first used in Gary, Indiana, where it was introduced many years ago by Superintendent W. A. Wirt. The platoon school is not mentioned here as a system of education offering individualized instruction, but rather as a work-study-play type of organization which permits the individual child to have more freedom, greater self-activity, and therefore

[1] The Macmillan Company.

greater opportunity for growth and development. The platoon plan is in operation in many cities of the United States, particularly in the elementary schools of Detroit. Pupils are divided into two groups or platoons, and while one group is engaged in individual studying or class work on a given subject, another group is engaged in some specialized form of activity, such as music, art, physical training, etc. At the end of each period there is a change of activity; the platoons in the "home rooms," so-called, leave for special work, and other platoons take their places. Specialized teaching is done in the common branches and in music, art, and other subjects, so that no child is required to remain the entire day in one place under one teacher.

Dr. Bagley says that "the essential feature of the present-day proposals for individual instruction (especially of the Dalton and Winnetka plans) is the very careful preparation of printed assignments or sets of directions by means of which the individual pupil can master the materials at his own pace. The teacher's time is then free for the giving of such individual help as may be needed."

III. Class teaching *vs.* individual teaching. A skillful teacher can teach a class so as also to teach the individual, and she can teach an individual so as also to teach the class. In a rural school there is unusual opportunity to do both individual teaching between classes and socialized group teaching during the periods of class work. What a teacher does will be determined by her objectives, her standards, and her conception of the educative process. The procedure used is determined by the nature of the subject matter and the needs of the child. All may study the same picture, story, or poem, though no two are on the same level of understanding or appreciation. In a given list of ten words to be studied by ten pupils a pretest may disclose the fact that

initial mastery of the words may vary all the way from zero to one-hundred per cent accuracy.

Here then is presented a chance to adapt instruction to the needs of the child, and to offer such individualized drill as may be needed. In teaching the four fundamental processes of arithmetic, there is undoubted need for individual diagnosis and remedial practice such as we now find worked out very well in the new drill materials published within three or four years by several companies. The teacher who studies her pupils as well as her subject matter and who teaches boys and girls as well as arithmetic will find abundant opportunity during the day to correlate class instruction and individual instruction, arranging for the one to supplement the other. In a rural school the intelligent teacher is offered the best possible opportunity to see to it that class and individual instruction constantly reinforce each other in interesting and effective ways.

IV. Instruction — drill — testing. A rural teacher must instruct so that pupils both know and do, she must drill for skill in the fundamentals of an education, such as the "three R's," and she must test to see whether her teaching has been effective, *i.e.*, to find out how accurately the pupil knows and how skillfully he can do what he is supposed to do. Of course there is much more to the running of a rural school than is found in instruction, drill, and testing, but certainly a large part of a teacher's time is spent on these teaching processes. Instruction, in particular, can be highly socialized even though the socialized recitation may not be used at all. In reading, geography, history, and other subjects there may easily be a democratic, coöperative discussion of interesting, practical problems, providing the teacher arranges for such a procedure.

Whenever a teacher thinks of her subject matter in terms

of the pupil's growth and development, she will see to it that there is freedom in self-expression. Such active participation will naturally be socialized, because the common problems cannot be discussed and active pupil response cannot take place without socialization. Drill may be a group activity or it may be more particularly adapted to individual needs. A pronounced tendency at the present time is to use diagnostic devices which disclose individual weaknesses and then provide individual practice as needed. Written drill work has come to be used more and more both with groups and with individuals. Any teacher can secure individualized drill materials by writing to publishers. In oral drill the teacher is able socially to motivate the work, thus securing greater interest and more attentive repetition. At least there was an effective social stimulus in the old-fashioned "spelling bee." The old recitation was largely a formal testing exercise in which memorized book facts were called for. To-day testing is more individualized through the use of modern forms of written tests, which take less time and leave time for socialized instruction.

V. Temptations of common recitation. The ordinary, old-type recitation is doomed, but it will be long before it disappears from the schools of America, especially the rural schools. The recitation, as known in this country, emphasizes subject matter instead of pupil growth and development, and in doing this it is clearly not educational in character. The temptations of the recitation are many — temptations to teach on a low, mechanical level instead of a high, intelligent level. American teaching has worshiped at three shrines — *assignment*, *study*, *recitation*. Assignment has not been a teaching exercise, and study has been bookish memorization of textbook facts learned merely for the purpose of reciting them to the teacher. We shall some day

see better than now that study should be the central activity of the school, that socialized discussions during group exercises should prepare for study, and that study should likewise prepare for socialized group exercises.

Pupils should never study simply to *recite*. They should study to learn, to master. We shall both individualize and socialize our teaching procedures when we see that there is no virtue in reciting textbook material simply as such. Group discussions will take the place of recitations some day; they do now when the teacher understands the true relation between study and recitation. Study is an individual affair and the teacher should make every effort to have such study effective. Class time should largely be used in the discussion of live problems and in preparing pupils for successful study at their seats by themselves. The temptations of the common, standardized recitation are so great that most teachers still succumb and become largely "hearers of lessons." If instruction is to be individualized and socialized, the present recitation must give way to something more rational.

VI. Unused instructional opportunities. What are some of the instructional opportunities in the rural school which the teacher often fails to take advantage of, either wholly or in part? By instructional opportunities the writer means any available agency, material or spiritual, by means of which the ideas and habits of children can be changed. Sometimes it is the printed page, sometimes a material object, sometimes the contact of personalities, sometimes the world of nature all about the school in district or community. Everything is opportunity to the teacher who is on the lookout for opportunities and who believes that the circumstances of life are but stepping stones to higher things rather than obstacles in our pathway.

The list is a long one and the following items are merely suggestive of some possibilities: the library — free federal, state, or county bulletins — encyclopedias and dictionaries — the rural environment of rocks, trees, birds, flowers, streams, animals, etc. — easily available state, county, and local speakers — a school paper — a school society — an educational public program — a mothers' meeting — special holidays and events — educational commercial exhibits — free advertising material (see the advertising pages of teachers' and other magazines) — better textbooks (the best are none too good) — current events as a teaching exercise — music-memory contests — Victrola records — singing (there should be singing at least twice every day) — state publications such as the blue book, state railroad maps, etc. — good seat-work material (there is now a great quantity, and wise selection is all that is needed. See chapter on Educative Seat Work). — The class exercise itself affords golden opportunities to relate school life to the world outside, to change the ideas and the ideals of children, to have them practice clear, distinct utterance and the ready, forceful expression of thought.

VII. Limitations in a rural school. The chief limitation of the rural school in the way of individualizing and socializing instruction is the teacher herself. If the teacher does not comprehend the doctrine of individual differences or does not understand and realize the social-civic aim of education, she will content herself with the assignment of book lessons and the hearing of memoriter recitations. If the school, furthermore, is one with all eight grades, there is very likely to be a multiplication of classes in which time is frittered away over trivial matters. Class after class is called to the front, but the work done is superficial and in no sense educational. Attention is given to unimportant and unrelated

textbook material. There is no true socialization, and no attempt at individualization of instruction.

Too many classes is a limitation, but if the teacher will stress study and not recitation she can easily reduce the number of classes to not more than fifteen a day, even allowing twenty to thirty minutes to some classes. In order to have social discussions on material which calls for thought, more time is needed than is usually given to a class period in a rural school. If the homes are without books and magazines and if the parents are lacking in attainments, the work of the teacher will be increased. This is often as true in town as it is in the country. The home may be of real help to the school or it may be a decided hindrance or limitation. In a rural school of considerable size, with all grades, there is certainly the limitation of the ungraded system, but there is likewise exceptional opportunity for individual instruction. A rural school can be a good school; but too often it is not, either because the teacher is unable to take advantage of her opportunities or because there is lack of necessary teaching accessories and equipment. Too many times both of these essential conditions are conspicuously lacking.

VIII. Extreme project procedures. Some projects are social in character, involving perhaps the entire school, and some are carried out only by individual pupils. Undoubtedly the project is an effective form of instruction if it is a true project involving distinct purpose, appealing to the individual as of real personal value, and carried out in its natural setting. A Christmas program, to illustrate, in which all participate, is a real social project which can be made of educational value. There are all of the preliminary preparations, selection of parts, assignment of pupils for the tasks to be carried out, selection of tree, making of decorations, designing of costumes, selection of presents, learning and

rehearsal of parts. All of this involves true socialization of instruction and can be made educational and profitable.

Certain by-product values here are also not to be lost sight of — the development of altruistic attitudes and emotions in the preparation and presentation of a Christmas basket or box, for example. If pupils are permitted to give as well as to receive, their natures will surely be inclined for the better. The hot noonday lunch, also, may be made a valuable social project if pupils are given a chance to participate and if they are trained conscientiously to perform the various needful duties. A school paper or a school society may likewise be used for instructional purposes. If a boy raises a pig or a calf, or if he tests milk or selects seed corn, he is engaged in carrying out an individual project which will have a direct bearing upon his increase of knowledge, character, and skill. In a country school, more than in any other kind of school, there can be found those environmental situations which make possible both social and individual projects. These can be utilized by the teacher for promoting the true education of the child.

IX. Usefulness of modified project teaching. The average rural teacher in America to-day is not qualified to run her school on a complete project basis, as advocated by Kilpatrick or Bonser, for example. It is likely that most teaching in rural schools can never be carried on in accordance with a thorough-going project curriculum. In fact, there are but few, if any, elementary schools in the entire United States to-day where the extreme project idea is in full operation. The complete project method, with the attendant selection of subject matter and accompanying procedures, requires maturity of mind, judgment, experience, and an underlying philosophy which most teachers do not

possess, and which young, inexperienced rural teachers would not have, in the nature of the case.

However, a modified form of project teaching is easily possible with many rural teachers, especially in such subjects as agriculture and geography. It is not difficult in teaching such topics as corn, weeds, trees, flowers, etc., to make use of a modified form of the project plan. In studying the selection of seed corn in the fall and in the testing of seed corn for viability in the spring, definite problems are set up, pupil activity is certainly purposeful, and the setting may be entirely natural, particularly when the selection of seed corn is done in the field. Ideas and skills are developed by the presentation of real farm problems. In geography the making of paper-pulp maps or the building of sand-table land and water forms are common illustrations of what may be done. Objective teaching as a modification of the extreme project method is possible and common with all good teachers everywhere.

X. Standardized tests and individualization. The testing movement has had tremendous development during the past decade, and this development bears a close relationship to the discovery of individual differences among children and to the adaptation of instruction to individual needs. We are about ready to say now that the most practical use of such tests lies in the diagnosis of individual difficulties in school work, and then in adaptation of remedial practice to overcome specific pupil deficiencies or weaknesses. It is now possible for a teacher to find and use tests which will aid her greatly in her daily work of instruction. There are now available tests of both native mentality and school achievement which are constantly becoming more reliable as measures of the individual.

Inventory, survey, and diagnostic tests in arithmetic are

now available; their use will eliminate much of the guesswork which has always characterized instruction heretofore. The Cleveland Survey Arithmetic Tests, the Courtis Standard Research Tests in Arithmetic, the Monroe Diagnostic Arithmetic Tests, the Wisconsin Inventory Tests, and many others can now be secured by teachers to aid them in disclosing individual needs in order to adapt individual instruction to those needs. In reading, spelling, writing, language, and in other subjects the possibilities of individualized instruction have greatly increased in recent years. The more recent use of the *yes-no*, *true-false*, *completion*, *multiple-choice*, *recall*, and other tests, all objective in character, makes it possible for a teacher in a short time to discover to what extent individual members of the class have mastered the facts of the subject. Often the disclosures of such tests will furnish a point of departure for later individualized instruction.

XI. Remedial drill exercises. It is the usual thing for a teacher not to distinguish between class and individual needs when conducting drill exercises. The author has vivid recollections of the entire class being sent to the blackboard when he was a boy, and of having examples or other material dictated by the teacher without regard to the abilities of individual students. Some had always finished long before others, and a few were unable to do the work at all. No effort was made to diagnose individual difficulties, and the drill was of the shot-gun variety, the result being great waste of ammunition and an actual hitting of the mark only occasionally and then purely by accident. How often it happens that pupils who need drill the most get the least, and pupils who already know and can do are made to rehearse facts and processes which they have mastered. The pretest has done much to obviate this difficulty.

Bagley and Keith[1] call attention to five principles in the technique of the drill lesson: motivation; focalization; attentive repetition; permitting no exceptions; law of effect. We are learning better how to motivate drill exercises, largely by appealing to the child's own natural desire to improve. Individual graphs of progress show the pupil from day to day how he is increasing in skill. Moreover, the relation of the desired skill to other work in the future, which the child may be led to see, also stimulates his efforts to practice. In starting drill on new processes it is of the utmost importance that the child clearly understand the nature of the process. Successful teachers take pains to fix attention so that the initial impression is clear and correct.

Repetition, or practice, is of course necessary, but some teachers apparently do not realize the need for *attentive* repetition. If drill is conducted in careless, haphazard fashion without the thoughtful interest of the child, more harm than good is likely to result. Therefore, when interest slackens, the teacher needs to use new devices to motivate the work. Short drill periods with suitable intervals of rest and relaxation have been found most effective. *Permitting no exceptions* means conducting the drill in such a way as to eliminate errors as much as possible. The way to build up skill is to have a series of successes with as few failures or mistakes as possible. Attentive repetition and short drill periods are thus very essential. Thorndike has given us the "law of effect" which may be stated in this way: Satisfying, pleasurable emotions accompanying the practice or drill, during which the individual senses the realization of a personal need, will tend to strengthen the neural bonds or brain connections; while disagreeable sensations of any sort

[1] Bagley, W. C., and Keith, J. A. H. — *An Introduction to Teaching;* The Macmillan Company. 1924.

will tend to weaken them. The best drill is therefore enjoyable drill.

XII. Individual practice materials. Modern individualization of instruction is well illustrated by the use of various drill or practice tests in the fundamentals of arithmetic, now published by several companies. There are, for example, the Courtis Standard Practice Tests; the Studebaker Economy Practice Exercises; the Horace Mann Supplementary Arithmetic, Diagnostic and Corrective; the Clapp Drill Books in Arithmetic; the Studebaker-Knight Arithmetic Work Books; the Osburn Corrective Exercises in the Fundamentals of Arithmetic; the Fowlkes-Goff Practice Tests; the Fowlkes-Goff Modern Life Arithmetics; the Benson-Jensen Arithmetic Practice Books; the Lennes Work, Drill, and Test Sheets — to mention only a few now on the market. Others are appearing every few months.

In order to illustrate the nature and use of some of this practice material the following excerpts are taken from some directions and suggestions to teachers and pupils printed in connection with the Benson-Jensen Practice Books[1] and the Fowlkes-Goff tests.[1] In the former we find this: "These practice exercises are for the purpose of finding and correcting weaknesses in the step difficulties of the processes. Full instructions to the children are given. More than one mistake in a single diagnostic lesson indicates need for practice on the step difficulty concerned. . . . Complete descriptions of the step difficulties covered by these lessons are given in the manual for Book One of *Social Arithmetic*, by McMurry and Benson. The practice sheets may be torn out as used, but the diagnostic sheets should be retained. The child's record is kept on the inside of the back cover."

[1] The Macmillan Company.

The following statements relative to the use of the Fowlkes-Goff Practice Tests will prove suggestive to teachers:

To the boy or girl who uses these practice tests

You may have discovered that you make mistakes in arithmetic on examples which at one time you were able to work perfectly. These mistakes are probably made either because you failed to learn some combinations as well as you should have learned them, or because you have not worked those particular combinations in a long time. In either case, you need to practice in adding, subtracting, multiplying, and dividing. Consequently, these practice tests have been prepared for you in order that you may be able to add, subtract, multiply, and divide both whole numbers and fractions more quickly and more accurately than you could before using these tests.

As you will see, there are ninety-five practice tests and five achievement tests. You may work a practice test each day for a half-year term or you may work a practice test every other day for a year. Your teacher will tell you which way you are to use the tablet. If you cannot work all the examples in an achievement test, you need to work on the practice tests preceding that achievement test.

Grading your work on these practice tests

1. To find your grade on a lesson, divide the number of examples which you have worked correctly by the number of examples which you have tried. Carry the answer to three decimal places.
2. Try to work all the examples.

Note to Teacher: It should be understood that this is an achievement grade only. A speed grade may be determined after the tests have been standardized as to time.

You are, of course, anxious to make 100% on all of these practice tests. If you know what you made last time, you will either work hard to keep your grade up or try to beat your past record.

On the following form, record your grades from day to day. Always try to make 100%.

LESSON NUMBER 1

Number Tried.....
Number Right.....
Grade.....

LESSON NUMBER 2

Number Tried.....
Number Right.....
Grade.....

(Records of succeeding lessons follow.)

XIII. Improving the question.[1] Questions must meet the needs of slow, normal, and strong pupils. There are various types of questions: testing questions, thought-provoking questions, and teaching questions. Testing questions are primarily to be used after children have had an opportunity to study a given subject. Thought-provoking questions may be used both to stimulate study and to test the pupil's ability to use acquired knowledge. Teaching questions serve to stimulate more complete answers, to open up new topics for discussion or study, and to awaken an interest in a new subject. All of these types of questions must be prepared on various levels of difficulty to meet the different abilities of pupils and to suit the various ages of the children being taught. Nevertheless, even young children are capable of thinking on higher levels than we usually give them credit for. The following suggestions on questions are arranged as nearly as possible in a ladder of difficulty, and

[1] The author acknowledges indebtedness to Miss Maybell G. Bush of Wisconsin State Department of Education for discussion of the question in this section and of the assignment unit in Section XIV.

this arrangement will serve as a guide in making assignments for groups of pupils of varying abilities.

Aims in Questioning

Questions may be formulated to appeal to:

a. *Memorizing* (fact gathering).

What is.....
Where is.....
Who is.....
How did.....
Tell what you can about.....
When did.....

Any of these questions call for pure memory if the facts are given in the text.

b. *Seeing likenesses and differences.*

Read the story in Gordy's history of how New York was settled. Read the same topic in another history. Find all the new facts given in the latter.

c. *Clarifying meanings.*

Prove statements true or false. Connect symbols and words, as in map study.

d. *Enlarging meanings.* (Reference reading.)

Compare two accounts of the same topics as given under *b*.

e. *Summarizing.*

Tell the main points of to-day's assignment in one paragraph. Write the story of your reading lesson as a telegram or a night letter.

f. *Judging values.*

Prove that Seward's critics were wrong on the Purchase of Alaska. Select the facts that justify the development of the Great Lakes Waterway.

g. *Organization.*

Make a complete outline for the discovery of America. (After subject has been studied.) Answer any problem question that calls for organization.

h. *Analyzing.*
Work out the complete solution of a problem that may arise in class discussion, including the breaking of the large problem into minor problems; as — Why is South America now a popular place for development schemes?

i. *Verifying judgments.*
Hold any conclusions reached in mind as tentative opinions, and reinforce them through later readings, actual trial, or additional evidence.

j. *Application* (seeing relationships).
Give a specific illustration of the general law; find the general law from a number of specific cases. Find causes when effect is known. Find effect when cause is known. Discover function when agent is known. Knowing the agents, enumerate the functions.

k. *Making inferences.*
In inference questions the direct answer cannot be found in the form in which it is required. The pupils must take facts used in one situation, find their common application in a new situation, and from the result determine the probable conditions or outcome. For example: What difference would it make to Europe if the Alps extended north and south between France and Germany? Would Europe be better off if the prevailing winds were from the east? Why are the Alps called "Italy's blessing"?

With the use of questions of varying difficulty instruction is more likely to be adapted to individual needs. Some of the above types of questioning already imply what now follows in Section XIV.

XIV. Improving the assignment unit. Formerly children were given tasks day by day as they moved through the school work and they never knew in advance what they were expected to do. Hence each child moved in lock step. To-day we realize that able pupils can do much more work

than can children who are less alert. We sometimes distinguish even between the "slow-moving" and the "faster-moving" group. Unless the unit of work is large enough to furnish sufficient material for the bright pupils they are sure to waste considerable time. This condition has led to the assignment known as the *contract* which provides for additional work for a given time so that children may work more nearly up to capacity. Most contracts provide two levels of accomplishments; some contracts provide three levels of work. All children are expected to complete the work on the lowest level before they attempt the next higher task. In this way slow-moving pupils cover the minimum requirement and very strong pupils are able to earn additional credit.

If the teacher follows the suggestions given in the preceding topic as to the various types of thinking called for by different levels of questions, she is able to make out contracts which even slow pupils can accomplish successfully and at the same time she can provide work difficult enough to call forth the best effort of the strongest pupil in the class. She does this by arranging her questions in a ladder of difficulty. The following suggestions for different types of contracts will aid in planning work to meet varying pupil needs. These procedures may be used successfully in the upper grades in such subjects as geography, history, physiology, civics, and agriculture.

1. A GENERALIZED THREE-DAY PROCEDURE

First day —

5 min. The class discusses the material of the previous lesson, preferably by the aid of a good outline.

5 min. The teacher presents a new unit of study, asking questions and telling suggestive facts to stimulate the

interest of pupils. (In introducing a new unit of subject matter, it is a common practice to make use of *pretests* and of *overview* procedures. The purpose of the pretest is to discover possible points of personal contact in order that the subsequent step of presentation may be better adapted to individual differences. The overview, or bird's-eye view, of the entire new unit results in a more comprehensive grasp of the whole in its related parts. Sometimes the teacher gives a sketchy, stimulating overview herself, and sometimes by the use of well-worded thought questions pupils are led to read the entire discussion themselves in order to solve the problem or problems suggested, for their own personal satisfaction.)

5 min. Give out complete assignment consisting of *b*-level questions (see page 148). Hold *a*-level questions (see page 149) in reserve to be used at a later time.

Second day —

5 min. Conduct a group test (true-false, completion, etc.) on work called for by *b* questions. Excuse pupils who do this work one hundred per cent.

10 min. Direct study for children who fail to get *b* work — rest of class studying the *a* questions passed out in form of carbon copies.

Third day —

5 min. Give same test that was given on the previous day and record marks for all pupils in the class.

10 min. Have a class discussion of two, three, or more thought questions found in the *a* assignment. For next day's work ask the slower pupils to work out as much as possible of *a* assignment and brighter pupils to prepare in written form all *a*-level problems which they were able to work out. It can readily be seen that this flexibility of procedure is much more likely to meet the requirements of pupils who vary in native capacity or individual attainment.

2. A GENERALIZED FOUR-DAY PROCEDURE: INTERPRETATION OF A PHYSICAL MAP

First day —

5 min. Collect papers prepared for the previous lesson and have a modern-test check-up on the last unit studied.

10 min. Direct open-book study, map reading, or interpretation of *surface*, including study of proper names. Assign *b*-level questions based upon matter in text on the subject of surface. Assign four or five *why* and *how* thought questions, *a* level.

Second day —

10 min. Direct open-book study — map interpretation for *drainage*, including further study of new proper names.

5 min. Assign ten or more *b*-level questions based upon textual discussion of *drainage*. Assign five or more *a*-level questions on subject of drainage.

Third day —

10 min. Direct open-book study — map interpretation of *climate*, including a more detailed study of some special or regional climatic conditions, such as prevailing winds, effect of mountains, etc.

5 min. Assign *b*-level questions, ten or more, based upon materials in text on climate. Assign a half-dozen problem *a*-level questions of the *why-how* variety based on the topic *climate*.

Fourth day —

5 min. Conduct true-false test based on all *b*-level questions which have been worked out by all of class.

5 min. General discussion of two, three, or more *a*-level questions, *b*-level pupils taking part as much as possible.

5 min. Introduce new topic for next unit of study, and make a preparatory assignment so that pupils will know exactly what to work on and how to go about it.

It is hoped that these general plans will stimulate teachers to work out specific subject-matter units and to use them in

their own schools. In order to illustrate questions on the two levels, *a* and *b*, thirty-three of the easier *what-where* kind are given below and about one half as many of the more difficult *why-how* variety. These questions are based on chapters two and seven in Knowlton's *Introduction to World Geography.*[1] These chapters deal with the subject of maps and map reading.

LESS DIFFICULT, OR *B*-LEVEL QUESTIONS

1. How many desks are shown in the plan of the room? How many windows? Doors?
2. Name from memory five buildings in the city map and five in the map showing the country neighborhood.
3. Name seven things which a plan or map shows that would be hard to tell in any other way.
4. How do objects on the earth look from an airplane?
5. Imagine you are up in an airplane. What would you see in the city? In the country?
6. How are the map and the picture on page 9 alike? How not alike?
7. Name the different things you can see on the map on page 9.
8. Does a map show everything? If not, name some things it does not show.
9. What is the shape of the earth? Name several objects that are shaped like the earth.
10. When you look down on a basket ball, can you see all of it? How much can you see?
11. If you should stand in the middle of a large, level plain, what line would you see all around? What seem to meet? Name the line.
12. How long is the horizon which people can usually see?
13. What does the picture on page 10 show?
14. What does the school globe show?

[1] KNOWLTON, PHILIP A. — *Introduction to World Geography;* The Macmillan Company.

15. What does it tell you you may do in the first paragraph on page 43?
16. What did Lindbergh do? Show his route with a cord.
17. How were the maps of the continents in this book made?
18. What is a sphere? A hemisphere?
19. What does figure 40 illustrate?
20. Name the four hemispheres of the earth usually mentioned. Which ones are shown in the book?
21. Read the names on the maps on page 44. Is there more water or more land?
22. What do figures 29 and 57 in this book show?
23. What does the shading on a map show? Look at figure 138.
24. What does figure 58 show in this book? Name several of the states and provinces shown.
25. What does figure 56 show? What kind of a map is this?
26. Look at figures 43, 45, 46, 49, 50, and 55. Read the *keys*. What do these maps show by means of color?
27. What is a physical-political map? Find the seven physical-political maps in this book.
28. Name all the things which the map in figure 58 shows.
29. Is a twelve-inch globe better than a four-inch globe? Why?
30. Is the map of North America in figure 58 better than the one in figure 43? Why?
31. Look at the scales of miles in figures 43 and 58. What do these scales mean?
32. What do the solid red lines on the maps show? The broken red lines?
33. How do we show mountains on maps? Cities? Rivers? Canals?

MORE DIFFICULT, OR *A*-LEVEL QUESTIONS

1. What is the difference between a map and a picture?
2. Why do we need both maps and pictures in a geography?
3. Are the *sizes* of objects shown in the plans and maps on pages 6, 7, and 9? In the picture on page 9? Give several illustrations of different shapes and sizes in these figures.

4. Draw maps of your schoolroom and school yard on the same scales.
5. Does the scale of a map have anything to do with its clearness? Give several illustrations in this book.
6. Why is a globe better than a flat map for showing the earth?
7. Why can you see farther from an airplane than from an automobile?
8. What determines the size of *your* horizon? How does your horizon vary from time to time?
9. Why are maps colored in different shades?
10. With a pin point show about where your home is on every map in the book where it is possible.
11. What is the difference between a physical map and a political map? Why do we have physical-political maps?
12. Why can you not have a perfectly true flat map? Illustrate.
13. Why can we not see the whole world at once? See figures 29 and 57, and tell what they show and mean.
14. Why do scales differ on different maps? Call attention to several maps in this book having different scales.
15. How is elevation shown on a map? Show on several maps.
16. Name all the facts which maps show that you can think of.

XV. The Morrison philosophy and technique.[1] Morrison's philosophy and technique, as expressed in his illuminating volume, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, holds fast to all that is good in the past, and blends with that philosophy the best principles of education developed during the last twenty-five years. The very first chapter is challenging. The author departs from tradition by defining the secondary school as beginning at the time the pupil has attained the primary adaptations. The other end is the point in the pupil's development where he becomes "a self-governing, intellectual, and social unit."

[1] The first part of this section was written for the author by Superintendent M. T. Buckley of Washington County, Wisconsin.

He agrees with modern educational thought by stating that the objectives of teaching are always either attitudes, skills, or habits. Teaching then is not concerned with the accumulation of knowledge. It is "concerned with putting the pupil into adjustment with the world in which he must live, and with generating in him adaptability to a constantly changing world."

These objectives of education shattered the old foundations. It was sufficient in the old day to teach subject matter. We knew the Ten Commandments. We could repeat them frontward or backward. "Thou shalt not take the name of the Lord thy God in vain" and "Thou shalt not bear false witness" are subject matter. The real learning products that will result from this subject matter are respect for God's name and reverence for truth. The raw materials — subject matter — leave the soul as it was. The attitudes — respect and reverence — constitute a soul adjustment, and the individual will never look on life as he did before these adjustments were made. If this philosophy is correct, a complete change must be made in our technique. To meet this challenge, Morrison offers his technique of systematic teaching.

He analyzes the learning products (subjects) into five types — science, appreciation, language arts, pure practice, and practical arts. A subject belongs to the science type when the learning product desired is an intellectual attitude or understanding. The technique presented below applies to the science-type subjects.

In teaching a unit there are *three* members of the learning cycle and *five* teaching steps:

a. Stimulus is the first member of the learning cycle. Exploration (1) and presentation (2) are the teaching steps of this phase. Exploration discovers whether the pupil is

ready for the unit, explores his past understandings and any understandings he may now have of the new unit, and arouses his interest. Presentation offers the teacher an opportunity to talk; but presentation also may take other forms, as in objective teaching, for example. She presents the unit, teaches, and tests her teaching.

b. Assimilation is the next member of the learning cycle as well as (3) its teaching step. This is the experience-getting stage. During this step the pupil is doing reflective thinking. His mind is focused upon the central thought of the unit until the adaptation is made. The teacher may now manifest her artistry in teaching by intelligent supervision of the pupil's study. During the assimilative phase many tests are given to determine progress. After comprehensive reading on the unit a mastery test is given. If this test indicates that the pupil has not made the adaptation, his studying should be redirected.

c. Reaction is the last member in the learning process. It includes organization (4) of the unit and recitation (5) upon it. In the step of organization the pupil makes a statement of the main argument and gives the evidence that supports his argument. This step is a part of the learning process.

The recitation (Step 5), to all intents and purposes, is the reverse of presentation (Step 2). It is not identical with the so-called daily recitation of lessons. The pupil who has the floor proceeds much as the teacher proceeded in her presentation.

Morrison's technique may be summarized in the mastery formula: test, diagnose, adapt procedure, teach, retest, diagnose, readapt procedure, reteach, retest, and so on to mastery.

. . . . . .

Dr. W. H. Morrison, author of *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, has very generously furnished the author of this book the following statements in elucidation of his basic thought. This analysis is presented here as a vital and essential explanation of the Morrison philosophy.

When we undertake to teach, it is to be presumed that we have something definite to impart to the pupil. This is the first thing to be thought of; and the second thing is that what we teach should in every case be capable of modifying the pupil's outlook upon the world or his capacity to do certain needful things. There really is not a great deal to teach; but if the pupil is actually to learn, a great deal of time and patience is required.

Another way of thinking about the nature of the learning products is to ask oneself the question: "How can I find out whether or not my pupils have learned?" Now the only way for us to be perfectly sure is to see what they do with what we think they have learned when they do not have to.

The best way to learn whether or not a pupil has learned his spelling is to see whether or not he uses the words correctly in some of his written papers. Best of all, of course, would be to see how he uses them in letters written out of school altogether.

A pupil may pass a test in arithmetic with a very high score and yet be entirely incapable of using the very principles he was tested upon when they appear in elementary science, in shop work, or in some other place which is not the arithmetic class. The real test of his learning in arithmetic is what applications he makes of what we think he has learned.

And so it is throughout the whole course of what the school has to do.

Instead, then, of a course of study being made up of certain chapters in a book to be covered this month and certain others next month and so on, it should be organized as a series of definite learning products or units to be mastered.

What do we mean by mastery? Certainly we cannot expect a pupil to know everything there is to be known about any subject;

nor can we expect him always to be perfect in whatever he does, for nobody is perfect. We all of us make mistakes. But what we can expect is that he has actually learned some definite thing, like long division, or the habit of correctly using the spellings and other language forms which he has been taught, or a real understanding of how our country came to be an independent nation.

One reason why schools are often ineffective is that they simply assign lessons, hear the children recite upon them, give a grade, and so on to the next lesson. If a child learns at all under that kind of procedure, his learning is a matter of chance; and it is furthermore often the case that just what it is that he learns is a matter of chance, too.

And so systematic teaching, or businesslike teaching — and these are simply two other expressions for scientific teaching — is founded on making up one's mind first just what it is that he is going to teach. That being done, the process comes to be one of teaching the class and then giving a test, not for the purpose of grading the pupils, but for the purpose of finding out whether the children have learned what we think we have taught. Usually some of them have and some of them have not. We then go over the matter a second time, perhaps varying our procedure somewhat, and test again; and so on until we get to the point at which we are sure that everybody in the class has learned, or else know definitely which pupils have not learned and why they have not learned.

Systematic teaching is essentially individual teaching. It is usually necessary to do individual teaching in a group, all of whom are at practically the same level of maturity. It is, of course, very much better to be able to treat individuals as individuals entirely without relation to their place in a large class group. In most one-room schools, in which there are children enough to make the school possible at all, the ideal way of teaching is much more feasible than it is in a large city graded school; for in the country school it is perfectly possible for children to develop entirely without reference to annual or semi-annual promotions.

XVI. Miller's famous *challenge*. Principal Harry Lloyd Miller, formerly professor of education in the University of Wisconsin and, until his recent death, principal of the Wisconsin High School connected with that University, uses the term *challenge* in his addresses and lectures as well as in his suggestive book on *Directing Study*.[1] Under the general head of "Definition and Use of Terms" in his book, Miller gives his conception of the term *challenge* in the following language:

Challenge — any body of materials or principles presented as a basis of study for a class group; substituted for lesson, project, problem, topic method; time, indeterminate (*i.e.*, it may be a day's work, two or three days' work, a week or six weeks, or even longer); in it no upper limit is set for any pupil at any time; the circle is described big enough to give profitable work for every one; principles (organizing ideas) are common elements of unity; exercises (indeterminate but definite) furnish a basis for recognizing individual differences.

In Chapter IV Professor Miller says that:

Challenge is used to designate the new *indeterminate* assignment. It takes the place of the conventional daily assignment of lessons. The challenge may be a day's work, a part of a day's work, or several days' work. . . . The claims of individuality are met by making continuous and deliberate provision for differentials within the challenge or organizing principle. Some canyon is selected for the prospecting party. The members of the group do not disperse into scattering units in a loose organization to wander afield in any direction at the caprice of inexperienced guides. But when the canyon is selected, the members of the group are not required to march in lock-step organization.

[1] Chas. Scribner's Sons. Quotations in this section are used by permission of publishers.

They may not always be in sight of each other. They are at all times within the potential control of the director.

One is tempted further to quote this author's striking sentences, almost as colorful and forceful on the printed page as when he presented his favorite theme to audiences throughout the United States. For example:

> The daily set-lesson assignment must give way to the *indeterminate*, yet very definite, challenge. . . . There is no vision in isolated set tasks. . . . A challenge does not deal with perpetual rest cures. . . . A chain of purposive activities runs through it all. . . . It is the spirit of the challenge, the dynamic of a big, worth-while realization that appeals to youth. . . . The job must be a real challenge; there must be something to do, a real problem; a chance to enhance self-esteem by entering upon a vital undertaking.

Enough has been presented here to show that Miller would do away with the deadly formalism of the schools, provide for individual differences, break up the traditional lock-step, and give boys and girls genuine training in active, coöperative participation in the joyful solving of personally worth-while problems. Miller's philosophy recognizes the well-accepted fundamental principles of democratic government, which, if it is to prove a success, must make provision for the education of the youth of our nation on the true basis of genuine freedom rather than on the false basis of slavish acceptance of anybody's "say-so."

XVII. Need for problem attitude. The teacher who is able to attain the problem attitude toward all of her work will readily find means of individualizing her instruction by making individual problem assignments. She will use less of the *what*, *where*, *when* variety of questions and more and more of thought-provoking questions of the *why* and *how*

type. Questions which stimulate thinking will lend themselves much better to socialized group discussion, and they will be of great service, also, in stimulating the child to profitable individual study.

In evaluating a lesson or class exercise the teacher will find it useful to ask herself such questions as the following, the first four being suggested by Frank M. McMurry: (1) Was there a motive on the part of the pupil? (2) Was there initiative on the part of the pupil? (3) Did pupils recognize relative values? (4) Was opportunity provided for application of the lesson? (5) What was the aim of the lesson? (6) Was instruction closely related to the previous experience of the pupil? (7) Were provisions made for caring for individual differences? (9) What was the character of the teacher's questions and the pupils' answers? (9) Was there a general summary?

Miss Maybell G. Bush of Madison, Wisconsin, states that:

To-day all agree that the processes of study must be taught as specifically as are the processes in arithmetic. This involves knowledge of how to use all of the mechanical helps included in the books themselves as well as the subject matter of which they are composed. *A challenging assignment is imperative.* The teacher cannot make out a challenging assignment until she knows the actual subject matter the child is to use. The first step in teaching pupils how to study is to plan all assignments in advance. These assignments must call forth all the elements of good thinking. The class period must be used to teach study processes. The following are among the processes that should be taught in class time until pupils can use them independently:

(1) Finding the answer to a question.
(2) Proving a statement true or false.
(3) Selecting main points.
(4) Supplementing the author's thought.

(5) Comparing two or more authors' accounts of the same topic.
(6) Organizing material.
(7) Summarizing by finding the questions the author answered.
(8) Drawing inferences.
(9) Making generalizations.
(10) Finding specific illustrations of general statements.
(11) Solving problems.
(12) Making "true-false" statements.
(13) Making "completion" tests.
(14) Making "multiple-choice" questions.

XVIII. Socializing opportunities in a rural school. Let us consider what seem to be outstanding opportunities for socialized, self-expressive activities in the rural school. A one-room, one-teacher school, where all grades are assembled together, affords exceptional opportunity for both individualized and socialized procedures, providing the teacher realizes the advantages of the situation:

(*a*) *Study-recitation.* Often the testing recitation should give way to a free-for-all, informal discussion in which common problems are considered in courteous conversation. Books are open and used freely when needed to secure desired information. This may be made a helpful socialized procedure though it need not be the so-called socialized recitation.

(*b*) *Committee system.* Every country school needs a well-organized and carefully directed system of committees to take care of the various daily needs and duties of the school which the teacher cannot well do alone and which the children should share in performing because of the decided social training which such a system involves.

(*c*) *Group teaching.* Aside from the study-recitation there may be other groups in which the work of drill and testing,

if not of actual teaching, can be carried out by capable pupils, often older girls. An eighth-grade girl can be taught to supervise some of the second-grade language or third-grade reading, for example, to the benefit of all parties concerned.

(*d*) *School society.* The school society affords remarkable opportunity for social and democratic participation. Every rural school, where at all possible, should have a thriving society which meets weekly on Friday afternoons. Such an organization may be made of service to the children, the teacher, and the community.

(*e*) *School paper.* The school paper is discussed in Chapter IV of this book. It will suffice here to state that such a paper can be made a valuable socializing force in the school and outside of school. The preparation and circulation of such a literary news sheet will do much to secure coöperation and active pupil participation.

(*f*) *General exercises.* There should be a full fifteen- or twenty-minute general exercise period at nine o'clock, or perhaps better a fifteen-minute period at nine and another fifteen-minute period at one o'clock. In the author's book, *Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher*, an entire chapter is devoted to this important subject. The socializing opportunities of a properly conducted general exercise are self-evident, but are not taken advantage of by many rural teachers.

(*g*) *School spirit.* The spirit of a school is its outstanding characteristic, whether good or bad. The spirit of every good school is a social spirit in which the basic principles of democratic coöperation are dominant and controlling. The teacher determines the spirit of the school; and if she is socially minded, the school will soon take on this very desirable attitude. No effort is too great if it only results

in genuine social relationships and adjustments and a spirit of service.

(*h*) *Playground coöperation.* The reader will find this subject discussed in Chapter XI of the author's *Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher.* Play is an educative agency; it should be supervised and directed to some extent. The playground may be the means of developing undesirable, antisocial tendencies, if the teacher does nothing to control the play activities of pupils. A teacher who sees the social aspects of play will arrange to socialize the play of her pupils on as high a level as possible.

(*i*) *Hot lunch.* The hot noonday lunch is not only of great value to the children from a health standpoint, but if it is rightly conducted, much valuable social training may also be secured. Committees for the preparation and serving of the food can take their daily or weekly turns; likewise those children who do dishwashing or who clean up after lunch can render a needful and desirable social service. The eating of the lunch in a family group can be made the occasion for the development of those social graces that definitely require such training.

(*j*) *Housekeeping skills.* The housekeeping phase of rural school life is a decidedly important one, and pupils should be daily trained to help in keeping everything in good condition. There is no reason why dusting, looking after the bookcase, taking care of the hall, etc., should not be made specific occasions for social training and for socialized expression.

Class Discussion Questions

1. Are individualization and socialization of instruction opposed to each other? Discuss the mutual relation.

2. Give a general account of the special contribution of Edward L. Thorndike to educational psychology. How does

Thorndike differ essentially from the psychologists who preceded him?

3. Set forth the advantages and the disadvantages of the "Winnetka Plan."

4. How does the "Dalton Plan" differ from the "Winnetka Plan"?

5. Do you think that the mastery of the fundamentals should be entirely an individual affair without social setting or meaning, as in the "Winnetka Plan" ?

6. What do you understand by the "contract" method of teaching? What are the advantages of fairly good-sized *contract* jobs as compared with daily page assignments of textual material?

7. Read Bagley's account of the "Batavia System" in his text, *Classroom Management*, and give a report in your group meeting.

8. Can the Batavia idea be used in a rural school? What will it do for the retarded pupil?

9. Is the so-called "socialized recitation" always a genuinely socialized procedure? May a teacher socialize her teaching without having socialized recitations? May she have socialized recitations without socializing her teaching? Explain.

10. Illustrate the statement that "a teacher can teach the individual so as to teach the class, etc."

11. Which is easier to socialize — a development lesson or a drill lesson? Illustrate in geography and arithmetic.

12. Why do most teachers succumb to the temptations of the mechanical testing recitation?

13. Do you think a rural school has greater or less opportunities for individualization and socialization than other schools? Discuss *pro* and *con*.

14. Are all projects socialized? What provision does the project make for the drill lesson, if any? What is your solution of this problem?

15. List five whole-hearted, *bona fide*, rural-school projects, and five others which are modifications but nevertheless useful as teaching expedients.

16. Secure the Osburn Inventory Tests and try them out with a fourth-grade class to find out their individual difficulties in division of whole numbers. What should follow such diagnosis of individual difficulties?

17. Prepare a review test on the Revolutionary War by using twenty-five true-false questions and twenty-five completion questions.

18. State five characteristics of a successful drill exercise.

19. Grade these questions into two or three groups, according to their difficulty: (*a*) What else must we know in order to understand this statement? (*b*) To what class does this person belong? (*c*) Where is Ceylon? (*d*) Which rivers of Europe are navigable? (*e*) What is meant by center of population? (*f*) Why did Lincoln issue the Emancipation Proclamation? (*g*) How would better schools affect Russia? (*h*) What effect will the character of the surface of the New England States have upon the life of the people?

20. Why is Miller's "challenge" an improvement on the old way? In what ways does the "challenge" tax the teacher's powers more than some other procedures?

21. List three socializing opportunities of the rural school not cited above. How can a school become dominated by a social spirit? Should the social purpose and atmosphere be a part even of drill activities? If a teacher is not socially minded now, what can she do to become more so?

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CHAPTER VII

RATIONALIZING THE RECITATION

The rural teacher does most of her teaching during the period commonly designated as the recitation. In a rural school the recitation periods are short, and as a rule the teacher spends most of her time testing the memory reproduction of book-assigned lessons. The writer believes that the testing procedure should be disposed of rather quickly, and that all of the class should be tested at once by the use of the modern written tests, and the like. Then the major portion of the time can be used for real teaching in which there is emphasis upon study, appreciation exercises, and other procedures calculated really to develop the mind and heart of the child. The usual testing and drilling grind is often anything but educational in its general outcome.

I. Analysis of a recitation. The following is a suggestive procedure for analysis of a recitation proposed by Maybell G. Bush, state school supervisor, Madison, Wisconsin. Put yourself in the supervisor's place and analyze your own teaching.

A. AIM

What is your aim? We try to find out by listening to the recitation of the children and to your presentation. Are you accomplishing what you had in mind?

B. REALIZATION

1. *Review.* Do you connect with what is known by a summary of previous lesson, by questions, and by true-false and recognition tests, etc?

2. *Class work.* *a.* What were the pupils expected to do in preparation for this recitation?
   b. What was given pupils to work with besides bare subject matter (pictures, references, exhibits, first-hand experience, definite questions, or problems, etc.)?
   c. What was the nature of pupil activity? (Review, question-and-answer recitation, topical or socialized recitation, special reports, or a written lesson.)
   d. Is it the best type of organization for the material?
   e. Are pupils reciting as if they had thought through this material, or is the teacher doing the organizing by her questions, letting them merely fill in with the subject matter?
   f. Are the children held responsible for passing judgment on correctness of statements, or is the teacher doing this, thus robbing the pupils of the greatest opportunity in the lesson for thinking and learning?
   g. What are the backward pupils getting from this exercise?
   h. What are the pupils doing that stimulates their best effort?
   i. Are the children asking any questions, the answers to which they do not know?
   j. Is this lesson a unit by itself, or is it a part of a larger unit, and do the pupils realize that they are working out a worthwhile problem?
   k. Are the pupils being taught how to study?
3. *Summary of important points in the lesson.*

C. ASSIGNMENT

1. Explanation
2. Connection with the former lesson.
3. Clearing away obstacles.
4. Detailed directions as to references.
5. Creating an inquiring state of mind.

D. RECITATION PLAN FOR CONTENT STUDIES

1. Quick test on big points of previous day's lesson (one-word test).

2. Discussion of studied lesson, centering around big points. Drill on points to be memorized.
3. Summary of lesson by class.
4. Assignment of to-morrow's work.
   a. Bird's-eye view o advance lesson given through stimulating questions by teacher.
   b. Any contributions by teacher from her own experience.
   c. Big points on which to center study in books and other materials.
   d. Problems to solve, or questions stated.
   e. Begin study of lesson in class if possible.
   f. Any references assigned clearly designated.

If half the period be given to the assignment and study of the advance lesson, we are enabled to teach our pupils how to study. In fact, our class period amounts to:

First half. Discussion of portion of lesson assigned in last part of previous day's period.

Second half. Clearing up difficulties, and preparation for study of next day's lesson, or directed study in class time to show how to study.

II. Overdoing the testing. It is much easier to test than it is to teach, and many teachers never get beyond the testing stage of their work. When a class is called out they feel that they must at once begin to ask test questions. Such teachers forget that they are teaching children — not geography or arithmetic. Testing is only one phase of the teaching business. A teacher's big job is really to teach. To teach is to cause pupils to know, to think, to imagine, to remember, to be able to do, to talk, to write, to form opinions, to gain in power and skill in various directions. Teachers are to prepare boys and girls for citizenship. The pupil must learn to be an *active* rather than only a *passive* recipient. Merely testing a pupil is not the way to train him or to develop his powers of mind and heart. It is im-

possible to train a pupil to appreciate a beautiful poem, picture, or musical masterpiece by any testing process. A successful appreciation exercise demands skillful teaching. Instead of asking so many scrappy testing questions, calling for fragmentary responses, try the plan of training Johnny and Mary to talk continuously for one, two, or five minutes. Then when class time comes, give the pupil a chance to talk. Moreover, arrange matters so that you have discussions in which the children ask questions as well as answer them. In many country schools it would be a great help to stop all testing recitations for a while and substitute study recitations. Teaching pupils how to study successfully is much more important than having them answer disconnected test questions.

III. Participating class procedure. The teacher and members of the class in one teacher-training institution came to the conclusion that some definite and practical steps should be taken to break up the deadly formalism and monotony of the usual question-and-answer or formal topical procedure. So one morning the following outline of purposes and procedures was worked out by teacher and class and then put into operation the next day. The plan has been in use for several years, off and on, in different classes. There has been a noticeable change of attitude on the part of many students, especially of certain high school graduates who bore the stamp of the mechanical recitation somewhat more sharply than some of the others.

Each member of the class had a copy of the little book, *Teaching Boys and Girls How to Study,* and besides this, the teacher had taken pains to present some of McMurry's ideas concerning the important matter of proper study habits and of thoughtful recitation procedure.

Here is the way the outline of points appeared after

teacher and class had thought them through. The list, prepared for young adults, is suggestive rather than exhaustive; no doubt the plan will need adaptation from time to time. It is suggestive chiefly for the advanced classes:

A RECITATION PROCEDURE

A. Some recitation purposes

1. To develop personal power of initiative in thought and expression.
2. To furnish better opportunity for coöperative activity.
3. To place the responsibility for the success of the recitation where it rightly belongs — with the members of the class.
4. To provide more and better occasions for active leadership.
5. To relieve the deadly monotony of the formal recitation.

B. Certain necessary recitation conditions

1. The members of the class must know the facts of the assigned subject matter.
2. Students must be alert and responsive in spirit.
3. Students must be willing to talk without being prodded.
4. Students must be willing to give and to take proper criticism.
5. Students must try to get at meanings below the surface and to see relations.

C. Some essentials for a successful exercise

1. Bring to class a list of principal topics of the lesson.
2. Write down several good questions calling both for facts and for judgment.
3. Become personally convinced that you must do your own share.
4. Be alert to note errors of any sort and to call attention to them at the proper time.
5. As the discussion proceeds, be ready to raise such problems as your own difficulties and thinking may suggest.

D. The usual method of procedure

1. Elect a leader for next time.

2. The present leader appoints three persons —
   a. One to report the next day on errors in English.
   b. One to report the next day on the contributions of the teacher to the discussion — a brief summary.
   c. One to write on the board a brief outline of the main points for discussion, before class time.
3. The leader starts the discussion or asks someone to do so.
4. Members of the class offer —
   a. To ask questions.
   b. To answer questions.
   c. To furnish needed information.
   d. To make helpful suggestions.
   e. To present personal opinions.

E. Suggestions as to what may be done

1. *Why* questions and *how* questions may be asked.
2. Important facts may be furnished.
3. Old subject matter may be reviewed.
4. New subject matter may be assigned to all the class, to groups, or to individuals.
5. The class may be taught, tested, drilled.
6. Students may read from books, magazines, and other references, to supplement the text or to prove a point.
7. Pupils may write or make needed diagrams on the blackboard, either upon request or of their own motion.
8. Opinions may be expressed and may be called for.
9. Dictionaries and cyclopedias may be consulted as needed.
10. Outlines may be worked out.
11. Problems and projects may be suggested and assigned to individuals, to groups, or to the entire class.
12. Objects may be used and experiments may be performed. Such objective material must be in readiness so as to avoid delay and waste of time.
13. Certain facts may be committed by making use of the thinking method. This is a suitable class exercise.
14. The exercise may utilize or involve different mental activities: perception, memory, imagination, judgment,

reasoning — as subject matter and objectives may determine.

15. Thoughtful comments may be made by teacher and pupils as to application of facts of the lesson to the practical affairs of life.

F. The pupil's threefold opportunity and responsibility

1. To see for himself.
2. To think for himself.
3. To express for himself.

G. The class slogan and motto

Do not wait to be told; but learn to carry your own "message to Garcia," for your own interests, and for the good of others.

IV. The new testing procedures. During the past three or four years a new type of testing procedure has come into rather extended use in elementary and secondary schools as well as in normal schools, colleges, and universities. A quite generous sampling of the several varieties (without regard to subject-matter unity) is presented here for their suggestive value to the rural teacher. The new tests are objective in character and the answers are quickly set down. There is a minimum of writing on the part of the pupil. The tests are quickly scored, for there is only one answer as a rule in each instance. By the use of such tests it is now possible quickly to discover the results of the study of an entire class. The papers can easily be marked at once by the pupils, and in five minutes the status of each child can be known by the teacher.

Samples of the New Tests

(*a*) *True-false variety of tests.* Underline the *T* if the following statements are *true;* underline the *F* if they are false:

1. Sheridan was a general in the Revolutionary War. (*T*—*F*)
2. The United States imports large quantities of coffee from Brazil. (*T*—*F*)

3. The arteries carry the blood to the heart. (*T*—*F*)
4. Alexander Hamilton placed our government on a sound financial basis. (*T*—*F*)
5. Wheat is grown extensively in New England. (*T*—*F*)
6. The liver is on the left side of the abdomen. (*T*—*F*)
7. The square root of any number is one of its two equal factors. (*T*—*F*)

(*b*) *Matching tests.* Place the appropriate letter (*a*, *b*, or *c*, etc.) in each blank:

—— 320 rods	*a.* one square mile	*k.* one acre
—— 231 cubic feet	*b.* $12\frac{1}{2}\%$	*l.* one ton
—— $\frac{1}{8}$	*c.* 128 cubic feet	
—— 640 acres	*d.* bushel of oats	
—— $31\frac{1}{2}$ gallons	*e.* one mile	
—— cord of wood	*f.* $\frac{1}{200}$	
—— 160 square rods	*g.* bushel of wheat	
—— 60 pounds	*h.* one barrel	
—— 32 pounds	*i.* one gallon	
—— $\frac{1}{2}\%$	*j.* one cubic yard	

(*c*) *One-choice recognition tests.* Underline the expressions in the parenthesis that make the statements true.

1. The passage leading from the mouth to the stomach is called the (gullet, eustachian tube, duodenum).
2. The orifice leading out of the stomach is called (trachea, pylorus, villi).
3. The hard part of a tooth is called (cartilage, enamel, dermis).
4. (De Soto, Cartier, Ponce de León) discovered the Mississippi River.
5. (Tokio, Moscow, Leningrad, St. Petersburg, Petrograd) is the capital of Russia.
6. There are (48, 60, 32, 96) pounds in a bushel of potatoes.
7. The United States owns (Brazil, Philippine Islands, Cuba, Greenland).

(*d*) *Completion tests.* Complete the following statements:

1. The two largest cities in the world are —— and ——.

2. The greatest railroad center in the world is ——.
3. The President of the United States is ——.
4. The governor of my state is ——.
5. In the World War the commander-in-chief of the allied forces was ——.
6. The great national park found chiefly in Montana is ——.
7. McKinley was succeeded by ——.
8. The President during the World War was ——.
9. London is located on the —— river.

(*e*) *Single-expression response tests.*

1. In which organ of the body is the bile stored? ——
2. Which battle was the turning point in the Revolutionary War? ——
3. How many United States senators are there? ——
4. What is the instrument called by which we measure air pressure? ——
5. Who is the chief justice of the Supreme Court? ——
6. How many acres in a section of land? ——
7. In what building does the President live? ——
8. What kind of a government has France? ——

(*f*) *Multiple-choice recognition tests.*

1. Underline capitals of states: Chicago, Minneapolis, Madison, New Orleans, Harrisburg, Columbus, Cleveland, Cincinnati, Albany, Annapolis, Baltimore, Providence, Trenton, Richmond, Des Moines, Lincoln, Topeka, St. Louis, Boston, Detroit.
2. Underline names of parts of the body: trachea, pampas, steppes, auricle, dermis, cerebrum, mulch, tile, cerebellum, spleen, isthmus, peninsula, esophagus, vertebrae, legume, enamel, cornea, iris, lagoon, coral.

(*g*) *Analogy tests* — Insert phrases or words in the blank spaces so as to make true statements:

1. The pampas are to —— as the —— are to Russia.
2. The —— mountains are to North America as the —— are to ——.

3. Lincoln, Garfield, and McKinley are grouped together by the common bond of ——.
4. London is to the old world as —— is to the new.
5. Tokio is to —— as —— is to France.
6. The bile is to the liver as the —— is to the mouth.
7. The lungs are to the —— as the —— are to a plant.

A. Advantages of Modern Tests

(*a*) They are more objective than the old examinations. Answers are *right* or *wrong*, and the scoring of the papers is a definite procedure in which the teacher's subjective bias of prejudice or mood cannot vitiate the results.

(*b*) The pupil does not waste his time and energy in merely writing. He can concentrate upon the subject matter and spend his time in thinking rather than in writing. Writing and composition may then be made separate instructional exercises.

(*c*) The preparation of good questions requires much thought and care on the teacher's part, and this is good training for her. The teacher cannot frame suitable tests of this kind without taking into consideration both subject matter and individual pupil and their relations.

(*d*) By using many questions, twenty-five to fifty or more, instead of the traditional ten, the teacher will be able to sample the pupil's grasp of the various parts and phases of the unit or division of subject matter. This means that the scope of a modern test can easily be made much more extended than can that of the old examination.

(*e*) The new type of examination can be given as frequently as needed, because it requires but little time in comparison with the old examination. By the use of frequent short tests of this character the teacher can both readily determine whether her teaching is effective or not

and discover the weaknesses of her individual pupils — highly desirable outcomes.

(*f*) No small advantage of these new-type tests is the fact that children, as a rule, like them. They are interested and stimulated to do their best. Good questions of this kind are a decided incentive to study, as any teacher can find out by experimenting.

(*g*) These tests have a direct bearing upon the study activities of the pupils, for they show each child wherein he has failed to grasp the meaning of the text. When teacher and pupils work through the results of the tests as a class exercise, a most profitable socialized discussion will be realized. Such a class exercise is very likely to be well motivated, and hence inherently interesting and educationally valuable.

B. Obvious Limitations

(*a*) High-grade questions of this type are not easy to formulate; teachers who are superficial and who do not study their teaching problems, including both subject matter and pupils, will not secure the best results from these tests — or from any others, for that matter.

(*b*) There is danger of stressing trivial matters in civics, history, geography, physiology, and other subjects, unless the teacher has correct notions of educational objectives and values. The writer has seen examples of new-type examinations which called largely for unimportant details — the mere lumber of the text.

(*c*) The new tests, unlike the old essay type, do not discover a pupil's ability to organize subject matter or to develop a unified discussion of a theme; therefore such training must be given in other ways and at other times, as a matter of definite instruction.

(*d*) There is some risk that these tests will encourage the bad habit of guessing, unless the teacher uses means to counteract this tendency. Space is lacking here to discuss this problem; but the teacher should recognize the fact that in a fifty-question, true-false test, for example, a person who has no knowledge of the subject can, by guessing, and in accordance with the law of probabilities, secure a mark of 50%, sometimes more, sometimes less, depending on given conditions.

(*e*) Unless good judgment is used the teacher will fail to sample the field of knowledge adequately, and thus the results will not be truly "symptomatic of total organized knowledge," as Professor Paterson puts it.

C. General Suggestions

(*a*) Make an effort to sample the entire field. Two hundred questions, carefully distributed over all of American history, can be made to cover the essentials of the entire subject. The writer has a set of 1100 questions in general science, one half of the true-false and one half of the multiple-choice variety. These questions constitute a very complete and comprehensive examination in this important subject and an excellent source from which to select. They were prepared by three state school supervisors.

(*b*) It is important that precise and complete directions be given preceding the examination, either orally or in writing. Pupils should know exactly what to do and what to expect in order to complete the examination.

(*c*) In making mimeographed copies of these examinations, as is quite common, the greatest care should be taken to avoid mistakes. Pupils are entitled to correct test papers. Errors are a distraction, and are usually inexcusable.

(*d*) In arranging the terms in the multiple-choice test,

a miscellaneous order should be used. Pupils should not be able to discover any key to right answers; otherwise the validity of the results will be jeopardized.

(*e*) The different forms of examination demand different explanations and directions which should be made explicitly and at the head of each type of test.

(*f*) If a rural teacher is giving an examination on Europe, the true-false, the completion, and other forms of tests should be grouped by themselves and not in mixed arrangement. Less confusion and better results will be secured in this way.

(*g*) No examination can be adequate unless it includes a large number of questions. An examination covering eighth-grade physiology, for example, may comprise two hundred questions, arranged in perhaps four groups of fifty questions each, preferably in eight groups of twenty-five each.

(*h*) In order to be fair, a teacher should have a judicious mixture of questions, some difficult and others quite easy, with many of average difficulty. Pupils vary in ability, ranging all the way from the slow-moving to the brilliant.

(*i*) No question should ever be used which admits of more than one interpretation. If there is any room for dispute or difference of opinion, the question should be thrown out; otherwise the teacher will be bidding for misunderstanding and trouble.

(*j*) In order to produce a desirable emotional response and attitude, it is usually well to place several relatively easy questions at the beginning of the examination, as is done in the standardized intelligence and achievement tests.

(*k*) Questions should be couched in clear, simple language, so that the form of expression may constitute no problem in itself. The pupil must be left free to concentrate

upon the subject matter of the examination, and should not be distracted by the mechanics of the system.

(*l*) It is usually unwise to make one answer hinge upon another. Let each question and answer stand independently, as much as possible. This is fairer and will secure better results.

Perhaps the best single small book on the subject of tests and examinations is the one by Professor Donald G. Paterson, entitled *Preparation and Use of New-Type Examinations,* published by the World Book Company. This manual sells for sixty-five cents, postpaid. The author has found Professor Paterson's discussion very useful in making a study of this problem, and is indebted to him for some of the ideas in the above suggestions.

V. The socialized recitation. Every good teacher recognizes the need for socializing the recitation. The so-called recitation is very apt to be a dry, mechanical, or formal testing exercise and nothing more. It too frequently happens that the teacher does but little real teaching and the children are unresponsive. It may be that the pupils have actually been trained into a sort of artificial schoolroom stupidity or passivity. The dry question-and-answer method based upon the subject matter of the text has been overworked, with the result of a loss of natural and genuine interest and curiosity.

Perhaps the socialized recitation has been introduced as a sort of reaction to the dead formalism of the old-time testing exercise. But unless the teacher is thoughtful and has a purpose, the socialized recitation will not prove to be an unqualified blessing. Instead, it may be an unmitigated nuisance and abomination.

Teachers should realize that what has commonly gone under the name of socialized recitation has not been of

that nature at all in many, if not most, cases. The recitation is not truly socialized when a pupil acts as a leader or chairman and merely asks a lot of formal testing questions, whether prepared by teacher or pupil. It is only when there is considerable spontaneous discussion of life problems that true socialization is found. If children go through a set, formal procedure laid down by the teacher, the exercise is a long way from being socialized. When true socialization characterizes the procedure, the pupils are thinking for themselves, they suggest problems, and they suggest ways of solving the problems. To prepare for a genuine socialized exercise and to carry it out successfully requires more thought and skill on the teacher's part than is usually found in rural schools.

A. Some values of the socialized recitation. 1. An exceptional opportunity is here presented for developing that power of initiative which is needed by every efficient citizen.

2. Practice in coöperative activity is more possible of attainment in the socialized recitation. The power to coöperate with others is a most necessary power.

3. If the teacher does her duty, the socialized recitation is an important agency to stimulate pupils to prepare their lessons more thoroughly and with more enthusiasm.

4. A good socialized recitation does away with the deadly formality and monotony of the usual question-and-answer exercise.

5. In general, the socialized recitation is a more effective plan and method than the formal testing recitation for training boys and girls in the essential qualities of good citizenship, providing there is genuine socialized participation on the part of all the children.

B. Certain limitations of the socialized recitation. 1. The socialized recitation is very likely to furnish particular

opportunity for disorder unless the teacher is wise, alert, and always in control.

2. Unless there is a very definite aim and careful preparation on the part of both teacher and pupils, the exercise will tend to develop bad habits of thinking and of the organization of subject matter.

3. Some teachers who are enthusiastic for the socialized recitation have gradually grown careless in their own preparation, and a progressively degenerative tendency is painfully apparent. There is a constant temptation to do superficial work, which requires but little thought.

4. Often there is great deal of frothy, aimless talk which actually does not arrive anywhere. There is evident lack of unity and coördination. Teachers should realize that their main business is the development of their pupils. The minds of boys and girls will never be developed by mere desultory talk. Definite purposes must be set up, and pupils must be held to clear and accurate thinking in the attainment of those purposes.

5. It frequently happens that a small group of brighter or bolder pupils do most of the talking, to the very great loss of the duller and shyer boys and girls. A good teacher calls out most those children who need it most. A teacher must know a child's weak points and she must then strive to overcome the weaknesses by suitable exercises. The usual socialized recitation gives training for those children who least need it, and the majority of the class are scarcely trained at all.

VI. Assigning the lesson. Ten suggestions on assigning the lesson follow below. The most successful teachers are those who are most careful in laying out the work, in giving pupils particular directions as to what they are to do, and in actually showing pupils exactly how the work is to be

prepared so that they can make a creditable accounting at the time of the recitation. The assignment, if it is a good one, takes time and forethought. If done on the spur of the moment, it is very apt to be superficial and entirely inadequate. As a result pupils only partly prepare their lessons, and when class time comes, there is hesitation, inaccuracy, incompleteness of statement, and a generally ineffective and unsatisfactory procedure. Here are some specific suggestions:

1. *Teaching assignments.* Remember that the assignment may be in the nature of a teaching exercise, requiring an entire period in the manner of a study-recitation exercise. During such an exercise a subject may be developed, problems may be suggested, and directions for study given.

2. *Blackboard assignments.* Many times specific directions, outlines, or questions should be placed on the blackboard. It is now not uncommon in several states to have blackboard assignments in many rural schools. A teacher is now judged to quite an extent by the character and appearance of her blackboard work, including the kind of assignment questions she uses.

3. *Problem assignments.* The most vital assignment is of course one which involves real issues, questions, and problems, which are more or less personal for the pupils themselves. Children are most stimulated and do their best work when engaged in working out problems involving personal needs.

4. *Book difficulties.* One of the teacher's chief functions is to teach the child to use the book. To do this successfully the teacher must know the difficulties of the book. In history, geography, reading, and even in arithmetic, it will often be a great saving of time to go over the difficult

words and sentences in advance so that the pupil will not waste his time in trying to grasp meanings which are entirely beyond him.

5. *Introductory assignments.* In subjects like reading, history, and the like, the teacher can render a real service by introducing the new lesson, giving the setting, the connections, and stating any facts which will arouse an interest and prepare the way for the pupil to interpret and make use of the new subject matter. Teachers often fail to do this for various reasons, the principal one being their own lack of knowledge, which often means lack of preparation.

6. *When to assign.* Assignments need not always come at the close of the period. Frequently the best assignment grows out of the lesson procedure. As the work goes forward, problems arise which must be solved at another time. Then is the opportunity for the most helpful of all assignments. Sometimes the assignments may just as well be made at the beginning of the period. In any case, it is a serious mistake to give a hurried assignment when the period is about over. It is better to wait and give the assignment at another time, rather than to hurry it through.

7. *Specific directions.* The teacher should make plain just what she expects. She should realize, and should have the pupils understand, whether she expects knowledge, or skill, or something else. If certain parts of subject matter are to be memorized, they should be carefully indicated. If pupils are to be held only for the substance, make that plain, also.

8. *Individual assignments.* Individual assignments, in which personal needs and difficulties are taken into account, are usually productive of good results. The writer finds himself more and more making individual assignments of special tasks the longer he teaches. If pupils are given

opportunity to report on special work done, so that they have the feeling of rendering a genuine service to the class, the educational results are evident and certain.

9. *Use of references.* When pupils are asked to use cyclopedias or other reference books, it will be best to be very specific as to which books are to be used, many times giving page references, and even indicating the exact topics on the page. It is a waste of time and energy to send boys and girls in a rural school to the library without first preparing them for what they are to find.

10. *Topical outlines.* Teachers should show pupils what to set down on paper in their notebooks, as they prepare the lesson. This needs to be done in sufficient detail and very concretely. It will pay good dividends to employ whole periods in which teacher and class study a lesson together, setting down those heads and subheads which will show the relations of the parts, and which will also assist in analysis of the thought as well as aid the memory. For example, a study of nouns might finally result in an outline something like this:

1. Definition
2. Illustrations
3. Kinds
   - *a.* common
     - (1) concrete
     - (2) collective
     - (3) abstract
   - *b.* proper
   - *c.* illustrations of each
4. Modifications
   - *a.* gender
   - *b.* person
   - *c.* number
   - *d.* case
   - *e.* illustrations of each
5. Sentences containing nouns.

VII. General suggestions. 1. *Testing only.* The greatest danger of the recitation is that it will degenerate into a mere testing exercise and nothing more. Moreover, the

test will largely be one of memory only, if the teacher is not careful.

2. *Recitation objectives.* There are certain purposes of every good recitation which no efficient teacher is very likely to forget. Among these are the following:

a. To give instruction and drill in oral English.
b. To develop initiative.
c. To stimulate pupils to think and to lead them to accurate thinking.
d. To cultivate imagination.
e. To prepare pupils for further study.
f. To give training in use of books.

3. *Socialized procedures.* A well-trained teacher knows that the recitation needs socializing if it is to be the means of training in effective citizenship. This means that the teacher plans to secure coöperative activity, but it distinctly does not mean that she turns the recitation over to the children. Every good, socialized recitation is always a carefully directed recitation with purpose and preparation back of it.

4. *Preparedness for study questions.* Experience teaches the thoughtful teacher that it pays to have study questions made out in advance for the use of pupils in preparing their lessons. Even though the teacher and children will work out such study questions together during the so-called recitation period, it is sound practice to come before the class prepared.

5. *Inductive teaching.* One very legitimate activity of every successful recitation is the assignment. This is often much more than the mere giving of directions or the parceling out of subject matter. To assign means to teach, if teaching is necessary. And teaching will be necessary, of course, if new matter is taken up and the children are

to be properly introduced to the new field of knowledge. This implies a development exercise during which the teacher and the children carry on a purposeful conversation which utilizes the experience of the children in the interpretation of the new topics.

6. *Appreciation exercises.* In reading, especially, but in other subjects also, the teacher will find ample opportunity for appreciation exercises. Knowledge is not enough; there must be developed right attitudes, proper tastes, suitable interests. It is entirely right that a teacher should be held to show what she has done by her instruction and training to develop likes and dislikes in boys and girls. If there is not growth in power to understand, to appreciate, and to love the true, the beautiful, and the good, then there is something decidedly wrong with the teaching.

7. *Knowledge, attitudes, skills.* Unquestionably, good teaching results in the acquisition of accurate knowledge, the inculcation and fixing of right attitudes, tastes, and interests, and the building up of various skills. We speak of specific, definite *skills* now, using the word in the plural number. We cannot efficiently aim at skill in general. Skill is always particular, if it is genuine skill, and not merely a vague general facility.

8. *Bodily postures.* Give heed to bodily posture. The practice of some teachers of permitting children to sit or stand in the class in bad or unhealthful positions is a severe criticism of their standards. They either are lacking in ideas of what is right, or else they are too weak to see that children show proper courtesy in their attitudes. Of course this is largely a matter of habit. Pupils can be trained to habitually correct ways of carrying their bodies, or they can be allowed to develop bad habits. It is of course wrong

for teachers to scold or nag pupils in their efforts to secure results.

9. *Judicious praise.* Cultivate judicious praise. Be able to commend in such a way that the child is encouraged to do better next time. Remember that real effort is most worthy of praise. One boy may do more poorly than his neighbor and still be entitled to a word of praise from his teacher. If a child really tries, he should be commended.

10. *Need for preparation.* In the upper grades many teachers would do much better work if they would carefully go over the subject matter in advance of its presentation, jotting down the various topics with their subdivisions. An upper-grade teacher cannot do skillful teaching unless she knows how to break up subject matter into its logical divisions. Every good teacher will not let a day go by without doing some definite, accurate outlining.

Class Discussion Questions

1. Do you think it a good plan to devote half of the period, at any rate, to clearing up difficulties and preparing for study of lesson? Discuss.

2. What is the difference between a question-and-answer recitation and a socialized recitation? Why should all recitations be socialized to some extent?

3. Why should pupils be encouraged and trained to pass judgment on the correctness of statements?

4. Make out a number of true-false, completion, and multiple-choice questions to test a class on the geography of the New England States.

5. How can a teacher overdo the testing procedure? When is testing in order and when not?

6. Is participating class procedure a socialized exercise? What will determine its success?

7. What is meant by the "deadly monotony of the formal recitation"? How can you avoid that in your school?

8. Under the head of "Suggestions as to what may be done" (page 183), which activities are you in the habit of having and which not?

9. Have you read Elbert Hubbard's "Message to Garcia"? Why should both teacher and pupil learn to carry "a message to Garcia"? Does efficient citizenship depend upon such ability? Why?

10. Answer all of the sample questions which illustrate the new type of test.

11. State the advantages of modern tests.

12. State the limitations of modern tests.

13. Summarize the general suggestions relative to use of modern tests.

14. State five advantages and five disadvantages of the socialized recitation. Add two to each list, if you can.

15. In what way may you look upon the assignment as a teaching exercise? Does it always need to be that?

16. Write out five individual assignments on the geography of China.

17. Indicate five individual assignments which grow out of a discussion of soils.

18. Prepare an exercise which you can use in a country school to teach pupils how to use *The World Book* with skill and effectiveness.

19. Prepare an outline on the subject of verbs which is the result of several class exercises.

20. Six purposes of the recitation are named in the text. See if you can add four to make it an even ten.

21. Of the six purposes of the recitation named in the text which do you consider the most important and why?

22. To what extent should a teacher require correct bodily postures? Does scolding or nagging ever secure such postures? How do you propose to secure them?

23. Make a logical outline of this chapter.

Useful Supplementary Readings

1. Bagley, W. C. — *The Educative Process;* The Macmillan Company. 1905.

2. Betts, G. H. — *Classroom Method and Management;* The Bobbs-Merrill Company. 1917.

3. Hillegas, M. B., Briggs, T. H., and Sixty Other Authors — *The Classroom Teacher;* The Classroom Teacher, Inc. 1928.

4. Colegrove, C. P. — *The Teacher and the School;* Charles Scribner's Sons. 1922.

5. Fitzpatrick, F. B. — *Present-Day Standards of Teaching;* F. A. Owen Publishing Company. 1926.

6. Freeland, G. E. — *The Improvement of Teaching;* The Macmillan Company. 1924.

7. Kilpatrick, W. H. — *Foundations of Method;* The Macmillan Company. 1925.

8. Lowth, F. J. — *Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher;* The Macmillan Company. 1926.

9. Morrison, H. C. — *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School;* University of Chicago Press. 1927.

10. Robbins, C. L. — "The Essentials of the Socialized Recitation," *Education,* Vol. XLVII: 72–78 (October, 1926).

11. Smith, Gale — *How to Construct and Use Nonstandardized Objective Tests;* The Benton Review Shop, Fowler, Indiana, 1929.

12. Stormzand, M. J. — *Progressive Methods of Teaching;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1924.

13. Thayer, V. T. — *The Passing of the Recitation;* D. C. Heath and Company. 1928.

14. Washburne, C. W. — "Burk's Individual System as Developed at Winnetka," *Twenty-Fourth Year Book, National Society for the Study of Education,* Part II, pp. 77–82.

CHAPTER VIII

TEXTBOOK: USE AND ABUSE

When we picture a school, it is always found that a conspicuous part of the complex image is the textbook. What would a rural school be without textbooks in the hands of both teacher and pupils? Every good teacher finds it necessary to do much oral teaching by way of supplementing and elucidating the text, but there is also daily assignment of textbook tasks, in which the pupil works out his own problems with greater or less success. The textbook is a tool for the education of the child. How important it is that teacher and children know how to make wise and effective use of this necessary tool. In many rural schools, even to-day, there is woeful lack of knowledge and skill relative to the use of textbooks. It is the purpose of this chapter to shed some light upon this important subject by pointing the way to a more intelligent use of the book.

I. Selecting the textbook. The problem of selecting textbooks has become an extremely difficult one due to the multiplicity of books and also to the change of educational standards, practices, and procedures. The average rural teacher is not competent to select a series of readers, arithmetics, or geographies; she should therefore consult the county superintendent, teachers in the normal school, and others competent to judge. It is unsafe to rely entirely on the representations of book companies or their salesmen, for it is their business to stress the commercial side of the proposition. They are usually honest, but they are also

in the business primarily to sell their books. The wisest course for a rural teacher is to get the judgment of those who have made a real general study of the textbook problem. In many states and counties the textbooks are selected by the superintendents and committees of experts. This relieves the teacher of a great responsibility; but she still has the duty of doing her best to learn the basic principles of the selection and to make the wisest use of the books selected for her school.

The modern method of judging books is by use of a score card on which are listed the essential elements for judging. Aside from the selection and arrangement of the topics in the text, such matters as size of type, make-up of the page, character of the index, the illustrations, etc., should all receive consideration. Passing judgment on the materials presented, their relative emphasis, and the question of how to teach the subject matter — all of this is, of course, a problem for skilled specialists. A rural teacher will do well to send for catalogues and descriptive circulars of books. She can learn much in this way. In the county superintendent's office or at the normal school she will also have opportunity to handle and examine the latest and best books.

II. Book wisdom — the make-up of a book. It will pay any country teacher to learn as much as she can about the make-up of books and then to teach such practical knowledge to the pupils. The author has been surprised repeatedly to discover that many teachers do not know the authors or the publishers of their textbooks. They have evidently not even glanced at the title-page. Of course it would be too much to expect them to know the date of copyright, and especially of the latest printing — a very important matter in the case of a civics book, for example. The

teacher should always read the preface and the suggestions to teachers, for they will give many ideas for using the book. She should note carefully the general arrangement of the book as shown in the table of contents. She should go over all the pages slowly and thoughtfully to get a general perspective of the entire book. Many times the glossary and the index are worthy of attention and of regular use as timesavers and for their suggestive value. Learn all about each book you use in your school.

III. Following the state course. In the state manual of the course of study put out by the state department of education the topics to teach in each subject and grade are often indicated in detail. Sometimes the outline of subject matter is given by months or terms. County superintendents and teachers are expected to follow the state course in the order given with considerable fidelity. If the state course is a good one, up-to-date, and made by those who know their business, it is highly desirable that all schools in the state follow the course rather strictly. So far as possible textbooks should be selected which contain the materials presented in the state course. This is also true of the procedures in the various subjects. It is the teacher's duty to know the requirements of the state manual and then to use the different textbooks to work out these objectives.

In her adjustment of textbook work to the state outline the teacher needs to know both the book and her state manual. She may not be able to teach the book from cover to cover in regular order. The teacher should use both the textbook and the manual as means for accomplishing educational ends. However, in determining what is to be taught and the order of presenting the topics, the state manual should take precedence over the textbook. It sometimes happens that a recent book is so good and cor-

relates so closely with the manual that the teacher will find it entirely possible to follow the book very closely. There is much valuable material in most state manuals besides lists of topics, and the teacher should become very familiar with all of this.

IV. The order of topics. Sometimes the order of topics is a very vital matter and only one order will do, but it often happens that the sequence is of no great importance. Several arrangements of material are equally good. In arithmetic we find the order of the greatest educational significance in most cases. Percentage cannot be taught before decimals and fractions. A general knowledge of percentage must precede a study of profit and loss. In so simple a matter as teaching the combinations in addition, recent research has worked out the easy and the more difficult ones, and very helpful groupings have been made. Recent textbooks in different subjects incorporate the most scientific sequences of subject matter and of processes, so that the development of the child's mind and his acquisition of knowledge is now much less a matter of guessing than formerly. The teacher needs to know the order of topics in both the manual and the textbook, and then to correlate the two.

V. Difficulties of textbooks. Textbooks are very much better than they used to be. In fact, we are living in the age of really wonderful books for the use of teacher and children. Books are now written in simpler language than formerly, and the arrangement of matter on the page and the use of different kinds of type all tend to assist the child in his comprehension of the printed page. However, we still have many books in use that are too difficult both for teacher and child. The words are unusual and the sentences are too complicated. There is a tendency among

teachers to use a more difficult book than is necessary or wise. It would be profitable frequently to spend more time on the lower book of a series, for pupils are often given the advanced book before they are ready to understand it. The vocabulary and the general style of expression are beyond the child's ability. The writer has often observed this condition in country schools. It is not unusual even in some relatively recent books to find the paragraphing done unskillfully, without calling attention to the central, developed idea. Discussions are not broken up and captions are absent or misleading. At best the textbook offers so many difficulties that whole class periods are spent in the interpretation of the lessons. Here the study-recitation is very much in order as a great timesaver and as a genuine educational agency. Teacher and pupils should become clearly conscious of the difficulties of each text and should seek daily to overcome them.

VI. Use of textbook illustrations. Nearly every page of many texts has one or more illustrations, and most of them really illustrate. In fact, there is a remarkably large body of knowledge which can be acquired by simply studying illustrations, not forgetting to read all the legends and explanations under the pictures. This is a profitable way to spend whatever class time may be found necessary. Examine a few texts with all this in mind. There is hardly a standard textbook in any subject of the rural school course which is not the better for the generous use of pictures, unless we possibly except grammar. Even spelling books are sometimes illustrated. The teacher should make use of all illustrations in all textbooks.

VII. Supplementing the text. In reading, geography, agriculture, hygiene, history, civics, and perhaps in some other subjects as well, the teacher needs other material

not found in the one given text. Such material we now have in great abundance. We have large numbers of special books on particular subjects; we have first-class encyclopedias; we have free bulletins; we have free commercial advertising literature; we have a superabundance of supplemental reading material of every description. A teacher renders a great service to her pupils when she procures such supplementary material for her school, when she makes a genuine effort to introduce her children to it, and when she actually makes use of it in her class work day by day. The author believes that the rational use of supplementary material of all sorts — books; apparatus; objects; collections of leaves, bark, rocks, weeds, etc. — is one means for judging a teacher's personal fitness for her work.

VIII. Use of text during class period. There has been not a little foolish advice offered to teachers relative to the sin of looking in the textbook during class time. As a matter of fact, the text should be consulted whenever it is necessary to do so in order to verify a statement or to find needed data for any purpose. Moreover, whole periods may well be spent with books open, during which time teacher and pupils discuss various problems suggested by the author. When a teacher sees that her chief function is not to test pupils on their power to memorize textual material, she will find time to do something of greater educational value. The text should be looked upon as a guide and a help. Pupils should never be asked to memorize much of the text material. Certain portions may be indicated for memorization during the assignment lesson, but the chief value of the book is to furnish data for the solution of problems. However, there are repeated occasions when everyone should close books or leave them at the seats;

then the period may be used to discuss topics of the lesson, and these may very well be set down on paper for class use.

IX. Assigning the lesson. The purpose of the assignment exercise is to prepare the pupils for successful study of the book at their seats and to arouse such an interest in the lesson that the children will be stimulated to do their best. In order to bring about this result, the teacher should prepare for an assignment lesson as carefully as for anything else. It will pay to take time not only to go over the new material in such a way that the child will see what difficulties he is to encounter, but also to point out definitely just what is to be prepared for the next recitation period. If supplementing material is to be used, the teacher needs to designate it; if the encyclopedia contains valuable supplementary discussions, the teacher should specify in detail. If outlines are to be made, if certain definitions are to be learned, or if an ear of corn is to be brought to school, directions should be carefully given so that there is no misunderstanding. New and difficult words should be placed on the board and all else done to make John's study time the most profitable possible.

X. Selecting the essentials. It is quite impossible to teach everything we should like to teach or everything given in the average textbook. The state manual will probably tell what to omit and what topics to stress. In general, we may say that the rural teacher should emphasize most the subject matter that will actually function in the life of the boy or girl in the rural environment. But there is a most important place for cultural material. The pupils need not only the three R's; they need also literature and art and music and a great deal else that makes life worth living. It is true, however, that in almost all subjects certain topics are much more important than others. The

teacher can do much to prevent the child from burdening his mind with the lumber of the text. This means that the teacher herself should know more than the one text. She needs a background of general knowledge. In assigning a book lesson the teacher should call attention to the big things.

XI. Formulation of problems. The textbook is the basis for the suggestion of and formulation of problems for class discussion. And, further, the book should furnish much of the data for the solution of such practical problems. There should be class periods in which the teacher and the pupils, with books open, work out the statement of problem questions which the pupils will later solve during their periods of lesson preparation. Definite instruction should be given daily in the finding and careful wording of questions which bear upon textual material or factual material found in other books. If the textbook does not suggest problems to both teacher and pupils in geography, history, civics, and other subjects, it is not being used as a tool for the working out of educational purposes. If problems are made the basis of lesson preparation and discussion, there will be no lack of interest.

XII. Thinking and memorizing. Some of the best modern textbooks indicate what matter should be fixed in mind by thoughtful repetition, and what portions should be made the basis for thinking. In the study-recitation period the teacher needs to conduct a preparatory-assignment lesson, in which there is opportunity to call attention to those fundamental facts of the text for which she will hold the pupils responsible. If the children are properly directed, they can be shown the method and the value of memorizing with the aid of thought and understanding. Pupils can be trained to *think about* their words, for example,

when they study them. They can be taught to analyze and to understand all definitions, as an aid to committing them to memory. *Reasons* for all processes will help materially to *fix such processes in mind.* Mechanical memorization of words instead of thoughtful memorization of meanings is all too common in our schools, even in this enlightened day.

XIII. Need for word mastery. Words constitute a prime difficulty in acquiring the art of using texts profitably. In every good school the teacher must constantly call attention both to words and to the mental images for which the words stand. Words should be made the subject for analytical discussions. Pupils must be practiced daily in giving synonyms and in thus using different words to convey the same idea. Think of such words as *villi, legume, isthmus, surface mulch, decimal, referendum, emancipation, committee, initiative, fraction, quart, corolla, complex sentence, adverb,* etc., and then consider the great need of forming definite mental pictures of what they express. The teacher can hardly overemphasize this sort of study of words. A modern, standard dictionary should be in the hands of each child in the four upper grades of every rural school.

XIV. Preparing for the study period. The old way was to say: "To-morrow you may take the next lesson, pages 75 to 80." The modern way is so to prepare the class that the teacher is sure the pupils know how to attack the new subject matter with confidence, enthusiasm, and effectiveness. No child should be left to flounder around in a maze of words, or to form the habit of listless dawdling. The writer believes that over fifty per cent of all study time in country schools, as a rule, is wasted, if not worse than wasted, because the children have not been prepared to use such time profitably. In many rural schools at the pres-

ent time, however, teachers are either writing assignment questions upon the board or else using carbon paper to make enough copies for the class. These questions are not always good; too often they call simply for the factual material of the text. Thought-provoking questions should always be liberally mixed in with the others in practically all assignments.

XV. Use of study questions. Some of the best recent books furnish excellent study questions which should be used by teacher and pupils. But in any case, all should have daily practice in making out such questions, as a matter of course. Here are a few sample study questions in civics, history, geography, and hygiene: Why should there be two houses in Congress? Why should all revenue bills originate in the lower house? How does a bill become a law? Why did the colonies declare their independence? Why was George Washington elected the first president? Why did Lincoln issue the Emancipation Proclamation? Why do they produce so much coffee in Brazil? Why is there more rain in Oregon than in Montana? Why does the Amazon River have no delta? Why should we all eat a good deal of fruit and vegetables? How can we secure enough mineral salts and vitamins? What can you do to avoid catching cold? *How* and *why* questions should be mixed in with the *what*, *when*, and *where* questions freely.

XVI. Learning to take notes. Upper-grade pupils in a country school can be trained in the art of note taking as well as in any other skill, and it is a valuable study habit. Let us suppose that the pupil is studying a page or paragraph on the election of the president. As a result of class instruction, he sees that the outstanding items in proper sequence are about as follows: nominating conventions — platforms — campaign — ballot — voting — popular vote —

electoral college — counting votes — election by house — inauguration. The pupil learns to select the main captions and then to group ideas under each one as needed. There is also need for taking notes while the teacher or a member of the class is talking or presenting supplementary material by reading aloud. The teacher should read Kitson's *How to Use Your Mind* or Lyman's *The Mind at Work* and other discussions in other books, and should then make a business of instructing in note taking throughout the entire year.

XVII. What about definitions? Definitions are sometimes necessary, but they should as a rule be developed by an inductive teaching exercise. In this way the child sees the need and the reason for the definition, and if he gets the idea back of the definition, he can often be led to formulate his own statement. Later he can be shown that the language of the textbook definition is probably clearer and more concise, and it will then not be difficult to have this book statement fixed in mind. The pupil should understand that a definition is something to *use* in his study and learning. For example, in grammar, the definitions of *adverb* and of *adjective* may have been worked out thoroughly by the use of many concrete cases in many connections. Now if there is enough practice in *applying* the definitions, the child will soon be able to name the adjectives and the adverbs wherever found. So it is with the definitions of *prime number*, of *quorum*, of *majority*, of *plurality*, of *delta*, of *synonym*, of *antonym*, and all the rest.

XVIII. "Study your lesson harder!" "You did not have this lesson very well, now I want you to go to your seats and study the same lesson a good deal harder. Go through it at least three times. Now, be sure to study harder this time." Did you ever hear anything like that?

Of course you have, and maybe you have been guilty yourself. What is meant, I wonder, by *study the lesson harder?* Watch the pupils at their seats and see what they do. You will probably discover that they really don't know just what to do. They read over the words — words they do not understand — and maybe some of the brighter ones wonder what it is all about and what it is all for, anyhow. If this same teacher would only conduct a study exercise with the pupils, placing questions and outlines on the board, and talking over meanings, what a gain there would be. If each pupil had his dictionary at hand, and if the words, sentences, and paragraphs were thoughtfully analyzed, who can estimate the increased educational value? As a matter of fact, no sensible teacher ever sends her pupils to their seats to "study the lesson harder" — or even to study it again, without first determining just what the difficulty has been and seeking a remedy for it.

XIX. The fetish of mastery or thoroughness. What is it to master any subject matter? When does one know his own state thoroughly? When has a pupil studied his lesson thoroughly and mastered it? Is it not evident that there are many degrees, or stages, or planes of mastery and thoroughness? Have you mastered the Gettysburg Address? Do you know percentage thoroughly? Have you a thorough knowledge of the Revolutionary War? Do you think you know Poe's "The Raven" thoroughly? How about the song, "Sweet Genevieve"? Is it not apparent that our knowledge and our mastery depend upon our levels of experience? Can a ten-year-old girl know "The Children's Hour" as well as her mother, who is, let us say, a woman of culture and appreciation? Of course, a child can master $7 + 5$ and 6×9, but in the realm of understanding, of ideals, of appreciations, yes, of skills, there

are all sorts of levels of achievement. Have you mastered swimming, driving your automobile, or the appreciation of "Crossing the Bar"?

XX. Textbook slavery. Some teachers become slaves to their textbooks. They are tied to them with chains so strong that it is really an intolerable bondage. Any teacher is a slave to the book if, instead of using the book for promoting educational ends, she puts implicit faith in and worships the book. She is a slave to the book if she is not ready to challenge everything that is in it, or at least to question any statement that does not seem reasonable and justifiable. Of course there is textbook slavery when the teacher cannot get away from the one book. She has no idea of supplementing the text, and drearily, day after day, she takes the pupils over the same monotonous road, with no alluring vistas of the riches and beauty in the many attractive books of the library. Book knowledge and book wisdom will do away with book slavery. The teacher must be much bigger than the text if she is really to teach.

XXI. Wise use of reference books. The class is studying the subject of *soils*, for example, in agriculture. The text used in the school is a simple one, giving a short chapter on this subject. There are three boys and two girls in the class. John is especially interested because his father has had some trouble in getting a good stand of alfalfa. The textbook has a short paragraph on soil acidity, but not much is said about liming and nothing about the new methods of determining the exact degree of acidity. In the library, however, there are three other textbooks, and a good bulletin from the state agricultural college. There is also the latest edition (1930) of the *World Book* — twelve volumes. Here is a fine chance for John to read up on soils and to report to the class. He will also have some useful informa-

tion to give his father. Instruction in the use of reference books should be made a definite class exercise whenever necessary. The *habit* of using all the references available should be fixed before John graduates.

XXII. Textbooks in different subjects. We now have textbooks which have been prepared to secure definite educational results. In teaching silent reading, the teacher now has a choice of several excellent series of books. These modern books are usually quite trustworthy, and they contain many directions and questions for teacher and pupil. All that is needed is a teacher who can really read and follow directions. In arithmetic the examples are carefully graded, much opportunity is offered for drill, and the problems contain data of so practical a character that the child is actually trained to use his knowledge of number in real life situations. In spelling, the words are now selected with the greatest care, scientifically graded, and, moreover, there is a technique of study and of testing which makes the study of words a more exact procedure. In civics, history, geography, and other subjects the modern textbook is a marvel compared to the books of a generation ago.

XXIII. Can small children study? Can a first grader *study* his reading lesson? Can a second grader study his spelling lesson? In these lower grades, particularly in the first two grades, pupils are unable to do anything more than follow very specific directions in connection with silent reading, for example, and because of their immaturity, they cannot engage in any form of study calling for much thought or for prolonged attention. It is the teacher's duty to supervise the study activities of these smaller children rather closely, going from desk to desk to discover what each child is doing and then giving him individual help as needed.

There is now available much commercial seat-work material of an educational nature for these smaller children, and the teacher can obtain this from the companies dealing in such supplies. Every rural teacher should have an abundance of such equipment, so that each child can be kept profitably busy at his seat. This is highly important. Small children cannot *study* as we usually understand the term, and they should have interesting and useful seat work, or else they should be out-of-doors.

XXIV. Teaching respect for books. If a rural teacher loves books, she can do much to impart her attitude and tastes to her boys and girls. In many schools books are not treated with respect because the books are not considered as friends. There is a sort of enmity toward books and maybe toward all that learning which books represent. Children can easily be taught to admire even the mechanical qualities of a book — the cover, the paper, the type, and all else. In our day the printer and the bookbinder are doing wonderfully artistic work. Why not teach the pupils to admire the beauty in books as well as in nature? It can be done. Besides these more external features, the teacher can easily call attention to superior workmanship on the part of the author. If the author is a good craftsman, his art will manifest itself here and there. Respect for books is tremendously worth while, and it can be cultivated.

XXV. Concluding advice to the teacher. In the teaching and learning of a rational use of the textbook there are several matters which the teacher will do well to take note of in a precautionary way: (1) Do not expect to teach the child how to use his book without taking plenty of time for it. This is a profitable way to use class time whenever necessary, and for some pupil or other that will be just about every day. (2) You cannot hope helpfully to intro-

duce books to children unless you are acquainted with them yourself. (3) You need to become thoroughly acquainted with your library during the first month of school so that you can use it daily to supplement the text. (4) You need to have other up-to-date texts on your desk, and this is a legitimate way to spend some school money — possibly some box-social money. It is often possible to borrow sample copies of good textbooks from the county superintendent or at the normal school. (5) See to it that each child keeps his own textbooks in good condition. Do not permit children to misuse their books. (6) Teach and train children to discriminate between good books and bad books and do all you can to cultivate a taste for the best. (7) Teach children how to handle books, how to turn leaves, and the like. Induce them not to handle books with dirty hands. (8) Teach your pupils the resources of their textbooks and the use of *all* parts of the book. (9) Instruct children how and when to supplement their books — a good life habit. Especial attention should be given to the table of contents and the index, until pupils can use both with facility and effectiveness. (10) The teacher should show pupils how to make out problem questions based upon textual materials. It is entirely possible to train upper-grade pupils to judge the relative worth of subject matter. Parts of some recitation periods should be used in training pupils, with books open, to make out suitable study questions. Upper-grade pupils can be taught to distinguish good thought questions from poor fact questions. (11) There needs to be constant practice in applying the statements of the text to the everyday affairs of life, and to note whether or not the author's assertions will bear close scrutiny when so applied. (12) In all use of textbooks the pupil needs to form the habit of looking for meanings and their

interconnections. The attitude which the child forms towards printed material will have much to do with his success in life. He needs a critical habit of mind, of weighing statements wherever found for what they seem worth to him. (13) Show pupils how to prepare for topical recitations. This requires that topics be logically outlined, and instruction in the way to do this may very well be given during a study-recitation period. There should also be training in the manner of delivery. (14) In all modern textbooks teachers will find many suggestions in the preface, introduction, and in special manuals which accompany the text. These should all be used. (15) Textbooks differ in their general make-up and in the arrangement and appearance of the page. Pupils should be taught how to use each particular text — in arithmetic, geography, history, etc. (16) Children can be taught in the upper grades to compare authorities and to evaluate varying sources of information. Textbook material should be challenged at times and pupils taught to weigh evidence. (19) Most rural teachers do not assign long enough readings at one time. Many times whole chapters or sections should be read in order to secure a general, related and connected view of an entire division of subject matter. General first readings of entire chapters will insure a better perspective and grasp of the whole unit. (20) Teachers and pupils should use the text for reviews in which the scattered and unrelated portions are brought together into a related, well-organized scheme or outline.

Class Discussion Questions

1. What are textbooks for? What is the greatest abuse of the text?
2. Are the books in your school up-to-date? Do you know

some of the modern books in reading, arithmetic, and other subjects? What are they?

3. Compare an arithmetic for third- and fourth-grade pupils printed twenty years ago and one printed in 1929. What differences do you see?

4. Do you have anything to say about selecting books for your own school? What would you advise if you were asked about the selection?

5. Name all of the essential matters which a teacher should know about each textbook in her school. Are you in the habit of noting the copyright date?

6. Which topics should you teach, and what order of topics should you observe — those of the textbook or those of your state course of study? Discuss this problem briefly.

7. Does the *order* of topics make any great difference? Can you teach South America before or after Europe equally well? Discuss. Cite some cases in arithmetic where the order is vital and others where it makes much less difference.

8. Do you realize the difficulties of your particular text in agriculture for a twelve-year-old girl? What can you do about them?

9. Make out twenty good questions, based on several illustrations in your elementary geography text, for your children to answer. Do the same thing with a history text.

10. Examine several textbooks to note the character of the illustrations. Select some which you think were inserted merely for embellishment, and others which teach useful lessons.

11. Tell how to supplement the text in agriculture; in physiology.

12. For what purposes may the text be properly used during class time, with books open?

13. Assign a book lesson in third-grade reading; in sixth-grade arithmetic. In what respects should you be careful?

14. Note the questions in several geography, history, and physiology texts. Indicate weak questions and state why you think they are not good.

15. Should the text ever be memorized? Discuss and illustrate. Name five *different kinds* of subject matter in five different subjects which may well be committed.

16. Show how a study of words may be of great service in upper-grade arithmetic. Illustrate with concrete examples.

17. Use carbon paper and make out study questions for an upper-grade history class of five pupils. Provide one sheet for yourself.

18. Name five definitions which you think should be committed to memory. How should this be undertaken?

19. What kind of seat work should first graders have? Make out enough directions for a week of such work in a country school.

20. When is a teacher a slave to the textbook? How can she become free?

21. Make out five reference readings on *corn* for the agriculture class, indicating title, author, pages.

22. Does your spelling book give a tenchique for teaching words? If not, do you know of such a book? If so, what is it?

23. When does teacher or pupil show disrespect for books?

24. Add three more items of advice relative to the teacher's use of the textbook.

25. Make a brief outline of this chapter from which you can talk for ten minutes.

Useful Supplementary Readings

1. Bagley, W. C. — *The Educative Process;* The Macmillan Company. 1905.

2. Betts, G. H. — *Classroom Method and Management;* Bobbs-Merrill Company. 1917.

3. Earhart, L. B. — *Types of Teaching;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1909.

4. Fuller, Florence D. — *Scientific Evaluation of Textbooks;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1928.

5. Hall-Quest, A. L. — *The Textbook;* The Macmillan Company. 1918.

6. Maxwell, C. R. — *The Selection of Textbooks;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1921.

7. Stormzand, M. J. — *Progressive Methods of Teaching;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1924.

8. Thayer, V. T. — *The Passing of the Recitation;* D. C. Heath and Company. 1928.

CHAPTER IX

KEEPING RECORDS AND MAKING REPORTS

There is wide diversity of practice in the various states in the business of keeping school records and of reporting to boards and superintendents. School laws vary greatly, and school systems and standards are about as numerous as the states of the union. Nevertheless, certain general aims and principles are common to all of the states; and boards, superintendents, and teachers are concerned with records and reports only as they pertain to the welfare and progress of the individual child. Compulsory education laws are found in most of the states, and such laws are needed both for the good of the individual and for the continuance and success of society and of the state.

In order to carry on a system of compulsory public education it is necessary to collect and record information in considerable variety and detail relative to children of school age. In this business of recording and reporting such facts and figures, the teacher is the person to whom the state must look as its chief and most reliable agent. School people can learn many useful lessons from business and industry; and if we make inquiry at any up-to-date bank, store, or factory, we shall find that the most minute and accurate records are kept of all income and expenditures down to the last detail, in order that a truthful picture may be readily available to tell the story of success or failure of the enterprise or of any part of it. Were the schools always on such a sound basis of accounting, and were the facts made generally available,

the people would soon find that they were getting greater returns on their investment than they realize.

I. Why records and reports? Upon our public school system of education rests the possibility of perpetuating our democratic form of government. Our only hope lies in universal education. The schools belong to the people; and the people not only have a right to know the facts, but it is really their duty to secure necessary information in order to shape future plans and policies, in order to know what officials to elect, what teachers to choose, how much money to appropriate, and for what purposes it should be expended. Existing conditions suggest future needs. Such matters as salaries of teachers, number of pupils to each teacher, number of days of school, average daily attendance, number of graduates, etc., are all facts of public concern. In order to make progress it will be necessary to have comparative figures available showing not only what exists but also what is possible and desirable for the future.

Educational advancement demands that the county superintendent secure needful facts relative to the work of his teachers in order to arrange a suitable and effective program of supervision. His hands are tied unless he knows about ages and grades of pupils, about the teacher's program, about the enforcement of the compulsory-education law, and about enrollment, attendance, and all such matters. Each succeeding teacher needs a record of classification and also the program used by her predecessor, as well as the usual attendance record. Good registers help the new teacher greatly through the record of many facts pertaining to the place and progress of the individual child in school. At the present time, more than ever before, we are asking schools and teachers to produce results. The public is making inquiries about courses, policies of superintendents

and teachers, and even concerning teaching procedures. Accurate records of progress are now rapidly becoming a necessity. The people are becoming educated to the point where they are now demanding facts and figures which will show them how much they are getting for their money; hence, the increasing need for records and reports.

II. Kinds of records needed. In *The Classroom Teacher*,[1] Chapter XII, treating of records and reports, the authors state that the essential records of a school system are as follows:

1. The Enumerating Sheet for Recording School Census.
2. Individual Child's Permanent Census Card.
3. Elementary Pupil's Registration Card.
4. Permanent Office Record Card.
   (*a*) For Elementary School
   (*b*) For Secondary School
   (*c*) For Elementary and Secondary Schools
5. Admission, Discharge, and Promotion Card.
6. Transfer Card.
7. Transfer Report.
8. Superintendent's Record of Individual Pupils.
9. Elementary Attendance, Scholarship, and Achievement Records.
10. Physical Record.
11. Pupil's Monthly Report Card.

No doubt these records are essential in a city system, but it is clearly impossible to attempt so much in rural schools. Moreover, it is unnecessary to keep such a variety of records. In the rural school there should be a modern register which comprises departments and pages showing all needful facts, an individual continuation record card such as is shown on

[1] STRAYER, G. D., AND ENGELHARDT, N. L. — *The Classroom Teacher;* American Book Company. 1920.

pages 221, 222, and 223, and a health or physical record card, illustrated on pages 234 and 235. It is not a difficult task to keep the register and these two cards up to date. There is usually also the report card to parents; types of such reports are given in this chapter.

It will be highly advisable to have suitable sheets or cards for recording the following facts:

1. Name of teacher.
2. Name and sex of child.
3. Name and address of parent or guardian.
4. Nationality of parent.
5. Occupation of parent.
6. Place and date of birth.
7. Age, as of September first.
8. Date entered.
9. Entered from what school.
10. Date and cause of withdrawal.
11. Classification by age, grade, and subjects.
12. Record showing ground covered by each child and class, indicating where next teacher is to start each class in each subject.
13. Number of times the child has repeated a grade.
14. Complete record of days present and absent and of times tardy.
15. Causes of absence, using initial letters or symbols.
16. Total attendance of each child and of all the children.
17. Average daily attendance for month and year.
18. Days school is closed, with reasons.
19. Record of promotions and nonpromotions.
20. Names and ages of graduates, if any.
21. Rather complete physical or health record, including especially hearing, nose, speech, teeth, throat, vision, weight, vaccination.
22. Intelligence tests, with scores, norms, and dates.
23. Achievement tests, with subjects, scores, norms, and dates.
24. Record of character traits, such as cleanliness, courtesy,

effort, obedience, orderliness, accuracy, habits of study, self-control, trustworthiness, promptness, thrift. See illustrations of individual record card and report card.

25. Copy of daily program in register.

26. Complete list of textbooks.

27. Card catalog of library — title, author, subject, and subject-analytic cards — all up to date.

28. Complete inventory of all school property at close of year.

III. Marks of good records. If records are suitable and adequate for country schools, they will have the following characteristics, at least:

1. They will not be difficult for the teacher to understand and to keep up to date.

2. They will be simple in form, with adequate spaces for all required data.

3. They will give all the legal facts required by the state, but good records do not call for senseless or useless data.

4. They will give a complete and continuous history of the child for the eight grades — physically, mentally, and morally, *on one card.*

5. They will furnish spaces for all needful monthly and yearly summaries.

6. They will be neat and attractive in appearance, whether books or cards.

7. They will be easy of interpretation, giving all facts which the taxpayers should know about the school.

8. They should be uniform throughout the state, at least. If there could be national uniformity in some particulars, it would be a great advantage.

9. They should contain all information which the succeeding teacher will need in order to start each child and class promptly in all subjects the first day of school.

10. They will give such tabulations from month to month as will make it easy and desirable to use these interesting and important facts for publicity purposes.

IV. Some definitions and computations. Many rural teachers become confused when the time comes for them to get certain data recorded in the register and reported to the county superintendent. It may help some young teachers, especially, to bring together in this section certain terms and processes which must be clearly understood in order to comply with the legal requirements:

1. *Age* should be construed to mean that nearest to the first day of September. This is now customary in many states, as it usually represents the age at which a new grade is begun. The exact birth date should be entered under or near the child's name in the register, as a matter of permanent record.

2. *Number enrolled* means total number exclusive of all duplications. The number enrolled is not necessarily the number belonging, as some may have been out of school continuously for more than three or five days.

3. *Net enrollment* means all names on school register minus the names of those who have been enrolled in other public schools of the state during the given school year. This subtraction will prevent a child from being counted twice, which in no case should be done.

4. *Number belonging* refers to the total number in attendance and known to be members. "As soon as a pupil is known to have left the school without intention to return he ceases at once to belong, and he is not thereafter included in the number belonging." "He is temporarily discharged at the end of three consecutive days of absence, and then ceases to belong until he returns and is readmitted. Three days represents the common practice in most states."

5. *Average number belonging* is the same as the average membership or the average daily attendance. The computation is indicated below.

6. *Average daily enrollment* is found by adding the numbers enrolled for all the days of the year, and then dividing this total by the number of days of school.

7. *Number of days of school*, inclusive of all holidays and all days "off," should be clearly distinguished from the total number of days taught, exclusive of holidays. There may be nine months, or 180 days, in the school year, but if there are seven holidays and days when the teacher was at institutes or conventions, then there are 173 days of school actually taught.

8. *Total or aggregate days attendance* is found in this way: Add together the number of days each pupil was present during the school year, or the number of pupils present each day during the year.

9. *Average daily attendance* means the average number of pupils actually present each day school was in session.

10. *Average daily attendance* is found by dividing the sum representing the aggregate attendance in days by the total number of days actually taught.

11. *Attendance percentage*, or per cent of attendance, is found by dividing total days attendance by the sum of the totals for both attendance and absence.

12. *Total absence* is computed by adding together all the days of absence of all pupils who have been out of school not more than three, or in some states five, consecutive days. Pupils absent more than three (or five) consecutive days are no longer enrolled until their return, when they are again indicated as *entering* school. *Absence* must not be confused with *nonmembership*.

13. *Per capita cost* may be computed by dividing the total cost of running the school by average daily enrollment for the year.

V. Inadequacy of many records and reports. It not

infrequently happens that forms for records and blanks for making reports are of such poor construction that they fail to accomplish necessary and legitimate purposes. There are many varieties of registers in the various states, and they have often been prepared to sell rather than to further the ends of education. Records should indicate clearly the progress or status of the individual child from year to year as well as the general condition of the entire school. Pages or forms for summarized tabulations and comparative figures should be furnished so that all who are interested or who have a right to know may see how the school has succeeded, or has failed, if such is the fact, in its efforts to carry on the work. Enrollment and attendance figures should clearly indicate not only what the facts are and what conditions exist, but also what ought to be if the school has served the community up to its capacity.

Figures for average daily attendance or for per cent of attendance are much more meaningful and helpful if we are able to compare one month or year with other months or years, or one school with other schools. Merely to record data or facts without making suitable interpretations in the way of conclusions drawn and comparisons made is largely a waste of time and energy. The vital question always is this: Is the school doing its legitimate and necessary work in promoting the welfare of the individual child in growth and development, and is it carrying on successfully those activities which are for the best interests of the community? If there is no complete, continuous history of each child's work and progress from day to day, month by month, and year by year, then there is something radically wrong with the system of records and reports. Records should be complete and adequate, giving all necessary and vital information, and these records should be carefully preserved from

year to year. A good-sized strong tin box with lock and key may very well be a good investment for the district. Then valuable records will be comparatively safe, at any rate.

VI. Recording the entire child. In the past we have been satisfied for the most part simply to record the child's scholarship marks, mostly on a 100% basis. In addition to this, there has often been some sort of a mark for conduct or deportment. But we are now seeing more clearly than heretofore that it is the business of the school to promote the child's growth and development physically, mentally, and morally, and to indicate definitely his progress in all these ways from month to month and year to year. The child has both a body and a mind, closely interrelated, mutually interdependent, and of the greatest personal significance. All matters of bodily health have a constant and vital bearing upon all the work of the school. Moreover, health and personality, as well as health and mental development, are intimate relationships of which the teacher needs to be conscious daily and hourly.

No record is complete unless it indicates clearly bodily conditions, personality attributes, native mentality or intelligence (I. Q.), and achievement or progress in the various subjects of the course of study. If the accomplishment quotient (A. Q.) can be computed for each child in each subject, such a record will be useful for purposes of comparison. Of course records of diagnostic tests and personal graphs of progress are common at the present time and also useful to a certain extent as means of motivation. If the reader will examine the *Individual Record Card*, illustrated on pages 221, 222, and 223, he will note that many facts are called for which have not usually been included in such a record. In this connection, it will also be useful to look carefully at the Pupil's Health Record as well as the card

giving the report to parents. Teachers should clearly realize that pupils can grow and develop in character or personality as well as in body and mind.

VII. Need for standardization. For many years school administrators have recognized the need for greater uniformity in school records and reports in individual states at least, and throughout the nation if possible. Considerable progress in solving this problem has been made since the famous *Final Report of the Committee on Uniform Records and Reports* was made in 1912 to the National Council of the National Education Association at the St. Louis meeting. This is probably the most important study of the general problem of records and reports ever made. Dr. George D. Strayer was secretary of that committee, and since that report was made Professors Strayer and Engelhardt of Teachers College, Columbia University, have devised a complete set of school records which may now be purchased.

Teachers who are especially interested in this subject should read the National Education Association report and also Chapter XII in *The Classroom Teacher* by Strayer and Engelhardt. See the other references at the end of this chapter. The war taught us the lesson that training the youth of our country is not merely a local affair. It is, indeed, a matter of national concern. During the World War statistics were gathered relative to the physical, mental, and moral fitness of the young men who were examined, that showed beyond question inherent and serious weaknesses which society should have known long before the war. Moreover, such facts should have been made the basis for remedial physical attention, teaching, and training years before in order to correct the personal defects. There is now a very definite need for the tabulation of vital health and social statistics in every community, to be used later to

promote the public welfare when properly interpreted and applied. If standardized forms could be used everywhere in all states, the social, civic, and educational gain for all the people would be certain. The willing coöperation of the individual classroom teacher is a vital and necessary factor in securing such uniformity and standardization.

VIII. Complete and continuous history of individual child. The National Education Association Committee on Uniform Records and Reports, referred to above, reports as follows, in part, concerning pupil records:

The foundation of all statistics concerning pupils is established in the records made by teachers in the schoolroom. Unless these records are expressed in common terms having a definite meaning the data gathered from them are not comparable. School statistics as at present compiled and compared (this was written many years ago but is true to-day, as well) are unreliable and of little value, and they will continue to be so until agreement can be reached, not only as to terms used and the definite meaning of these terms, but also, to some extent, as to the method of recording and arranging the original data upon which school statistics are based.

The first work of the committee on uniform statistics consisted of a careful investigation of the subject of school records, and this resulted in the submission of an elementary-school record system, through the coöperation of the United States commissioner of education, to school superintendents throughout the country. Although several forms were offered for the purpose of getting criticisms and suggestions and for the sake of illustrating the complete working out of a system of school records, chief emphasis was laid on the *cumulative record card* which was framed to serve as a permanent and progressive record of the pupil's entire elementary school career. . . . There was substantially unanimous assent to the proposition that a *cumulative record card* should be kept for every child throughout his entire elementary-school career.

The form devised by the committee was not intended primarily for rural schools, but no rural teacher anywhere will find any particular difficulty in using such a card. The card as illustrated on page 29 of the report carries the following items on one side: school, date of admission, age on September 1, grade, room, days present, health, conduct, scholarship. On the opposite side we find these items: full name, place of birth, date of birth, date of vaccination, name of parent or guardian, occupation of parent or guardian, residence, date of discharge, age when discharged.

The cumulative record card proposed by the committee is six inches long and four inches wide. However, the other individual record card illustrated on pages 221 and 222 will need to be about nine inches by twelve inches in size, in order to carry all of the data suggested. It is very important that the card contain a complete, continuous record for the eight years of the elementary school. The card goes with the child when he changes schools, so that the last school which he attends has all of the necessary facts. The data on the card, or the arrangement of the items, may be modified to suit the needs and desires of superintendents and teachers. Many of the items are entered at the end of the year; but whenever any fact is available, it should be recorded at once. Nothing should be left to memory. These cards carry a complete, continuous, permanent record of the child. They are easy to consult, as all the desired facts are found on one card. The cards should be arranged alphabetically in a neat box for easy, ready reference. Wilkinson[1] says:

> This record can be consulted at any time the information is needed to throw light on any question that arises in connection with the work of any pupil. The information contained on these

[1] Wilkinson, W. A. — *Rural School Management;* Silver, Burdett and Company. 1917.

JANESVILLE PUBLIC SCHOOLS
INDIVIDUAL CUMULATIVE RECORD CARD

NAME _____ DATE OF BIRTH _____ BOY ☐ GIRL ☐
LAST FIRST MIDDLE MO. DA. YR.

PARENT, GUARDIAN _____ OCCUPATION _____

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL RECORD

YEAR	NAME OF SCHOOL	TEACHER	GRADE	DAYS ABSENT	SUBJECTS									CONDUCT	EFFORT	PROMOTED (YES NO)
					READING	LANGUAGE	SPELLING	ARITHMETIC	WRITING	GEOGRAPHY	HISTORY	ART	MUSIC	PHYS. ED.			

SUBJECTS: A-EXCELLENT B-GOOD C-FAIR D-POOR F-FAILURE CONDUCT AND EFFORT: √ SATISFACTORY —UNSATISFACTORY

RESIDENCE RECORD

DATE	CITY	SCHOOL	DATE	CITY	SCHOOL	DATE	CITY	SCHOOL

Courtesy of Superintendent, Janesville, Wisconsin

A suggestive modern cumulative record (obverse)

HEALTH RECORD

LIST OUTSTANDING PHYSICAL HANDICAPS, SPEECH DEFECTS, DISEASES, ACCIDENTS, ETC., WHICH MAY AFFECT PROGRESS

DATE		DATE	

HOME RECORD

SIGNIFICANT COMMENTS ON HOME CONDITIONS WHICH MAY AFFECT PROGRESS

DATE		DATE	

INDIVIDUAL INTEREST RECORD

SPECIAL APTITUDES, INTERESTS, ACHIEVEMENTS, DEFICIENCIES, EVIDENCED BY PUPIL

DATE		DATE	

STANDARDIZED TEST RECORD

DATE	GRADE	NAME OF TEST	TYPE OF TEST	C.A.	SCORE	STANDARD	DATA

Courtesy of Superintendent, Janesville, Wisconsin

Cumulative record card (reverse)

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL RECORD CARD

LAST NAME — FIRST NAME — MIDDLE NAME

DATE OF BIRTH: YEAR | MONTH | DAY

DATE OF ENTRANCE INTO SCHOOL SYSTEM: YEAR | MONTH | DAY

GRADE LAST ATTENDED — SCHOOL LAST ATTENDED — DATE OF WITHDRAWAL

NAME OF PARENT OR GUARDIAN

RESIDENCE OF PARENT OR GUARDIAN

REASON FOR WITHDRAWAL	(CHECK)
CHANGE OF ADDRESS	
ILLNESS	
WORK	
DEATH	
OVER SCHOOL AGE	

NAME OF SCHOOL — LOCAL STREET ADDRESS	YEAR	TEL. NO.

RECORD HERE FINAL GRADES IN EFFORT AND ACHIEVEMENT IN EACH SUBJECT

DATE OF ADMISSION	DATE OF DISCHARGE	GRADE	DAYS PRESENT	ARITH		AGRI.		CITIZENSHIP		D. SC		DRAW		GEOG		HIST.		LANG OR GR		M TR		MUSIC		PH ED		PHY. & HYG.		SPELL.		WRIT		READ.							
				EFF	A	EFF	A	EFF	A	EFF	A	EFF	A	EFF	A	EFF	A	EFF	A	EFF	A	EFF	A	EFF	A	EFF	A	EFF	A	EFF	A	EFF	A	EFF	A	EFF	A	EFF	A

CA FORM 61

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General view of the individual's school status

There are spaces for a ten-year record. Either letter grades or percentage marks may be used.

THE UNIVERSAL CUMULATIVE RECORD SHEET

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

INSTRUCTIONS: THIS SHEET IS TO FOLLOW THE CHILD FROM TEACHER TO TEACHER IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL. ONE RECORD ONLY IS TO BE MADE EACH SEMESTER. THIS SHEET IS TO FOLLOW THE CHILD FROM TEACHER TO TEACHER IN CLOSEST CONTACT WITH HIM. UPON WITHDRAWAL FROM SCHOOL, IT SHOULD BE FILED IN THE CENTRAL OFFICE.

CHILD — LAST NAME, FIRST, MIDDLE; BIRTH DATE MO. DA. YR.; AUTHORITY FOR BIRTHDATE; BOY / GIRL; BIRTH PLACE

PARENTS — FA. / MO. — LAST NAME, FIRST, SECOND; LIVING; CITIZEN; SPOKEN ENGLISH; WRITTEN ENGLISH

BIRTH PLACE FA. MO.; NATIONALITY FA. MO.; LANGUAGE IN HOME

FAMILY — DIVORCED; SEPARATED; REMARRIED FA. MO.

RACE — FATHER: WHITE, YELLOW, RED, BROWN, BLACK, OCCUPATION

MOTHER: WHITE, YELLOW, RED, BROWN, BLACK, OCCUPATION

CHILDREN IN FAMILY — OLDER / YOUNGER: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

CHILD LIVES WITH — BOTH PARENTS, FATHER, MOTHER, UNCLE, AUNT, GUARDIAN; GRAND PARENTS, BROTHER, SISTER, BOARDS, ALONE, MARRIED, INSTITUTION

RESIDENCE RECORD

DATE	CITY OR COUNTY	STREET OR DISTRICT	NO.	CENSUS BLOCK	PARENTS OCCUPATION

YEAR	SEMESTER	NAME OF SCHOOL	NAME OF TEACHER	GRADE	DAYS ON ROLL	DAYS ABSENT	⊗ CAUSE	TIMES TARDY	● CAUSE	EFFORT	CONDUCT

SUBJECTS

READING	ARITH	SPELLING	LANGUAGE	GRAMMAR	HISTORY	GEOGRAPHY				

CODES

= BIRTHDATE
1 BIRTH CERTIFICATE
2 PASSPORT
3 BIBLE
4 BAPTISMAL CERT.
5 PHYSICIANS EX.
6 PARENTS OATH
7 PARENTS STATEMENT
8 CHILDS STATEMENT

○ BIRTHPLACE, NATIONALITY OR LANGUAGE
65 ALBANIA
63 ARABIA
61 ARMENIA
16 AUSTRALIA
22 AUSTRIA
42 BELGIUM
51 BOHEMIA
54 BULGARIA
14 CANADA
80 CHINA
51 CZECHOSLOVAKIA
32 DENMARK
10 ENGLAND
67 ESTONIA
33 FINLAND
41 FRANCE
20 GERMANY
46 GREECE
21 HOLLAND
60 HUNGARY
68 INDIA
13 IRELAND
40 ITALY
81 JAPAN
53 YUGOSLAVIA
56 LATVIA
55 LITHUANIA
86 MALAY PENINSULA
82 MEXICO
53 MONTENEGRO
21 NETHERLANDS
31 NORWAY
66 PERSIA
50 POLAND
44 PORTUGAL
45 RUMANIA
52 RUSSIA
11 SCOTLAND
53 SERBIA
43 SPAIN
30 SWEDEN
23 SWITZERLAND
62 SYRIA
64 TURKEY
52 UKRAINE
01 UNITED STATES
12 WALES
83 WEST INDIES
70 UNKNOWN

⊗ CAUSE ABSENCE
71 OTHER LEGAL REASONS
72 ILLEGAL EMP.
73 PARENTAL NEGLECT
74 TRUANCY
75 COURT
76 SICKNESS
77
78

● CAUSE TARDINESS
90 PARENTS RESPON.
91 CHILD RESPON
92 ACCIDENTAL
93
94

ONE RECORD ONLY IS TO BE MADE EACH SEMESTER, THIS RECORD WILL BE MADE BY THE SCHOOL AND TEACHER WHO HAS THE CHILD AT THE CLOSE OF EACH SEMESTER. IF A CHILD ATTENDS ELEMENTARY SCHOOL 12 YEARS, ALL 24 LINES WILL BE USED FOR HIS ELEMENTARY SCHOOL RECORD

Courtesy of Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

Universal Cumulative Record Sheet

cards is valuable to the teacher or to any one else who is interested in such problems as the relation of attendance to scholarship, the relation of health to scholarship, the causes of a pupil's withdrawal from school, the relation of age to withdrawal, and many others.

IX. Need for accurate school census. If compulsory-attendance laws and child-labor laws are to be enforced, it will be necessary to have more accurate school-census records, to keep such records up to date, and to use the facts and figures to account for every child all of the time. We are committed to the idea of compulsory education in this country, but the laws are very inadequately enforced in many communities. A continuing school census, giving a record of every child in the district, is the only solution. Education should be for "all the children of all the people," if our democracy is to be a success. Teachers and others will find that the data on page 363 of Cubberley's *Public School Administration* and the forms given by Strayer and Engelhardt in *The Classroom Teacher*, pages 285 and 289, are of interest in this connection. See the full discussions of the problem in both of these books also.

The rural teacher should get the census report from the clerk before the first day of school, and by the use of this report and by making personal inquiries, she should find out the names of all the children who are of school age and who therefore should be in school. Every child in the district needs to be accounted for. Some may attend parochial schools, and if so, the facts should be known. If certain persons were made legally responsible for reporting children, and if fines were imposed for failure to report, perhaps better results would be secured in enforcing attendance laws. If universal education is a state need, and this is generally admitted, then some method must be devised to enforce compulsory education laws. A continuing, up-to-date, school

CONTINUOUS SCHOOL CENSUS RECORD

ONE CARD FOR EACH CHILD IN SCHOOL DISTRICT BETWEEN AGES 4-20

LAST NAME OF CHILD — FIRST NAME — MIDDLE NAME

YEAR
MONTH
DAY
DATE OF BIRTH

BOY GIRL CHECK

BIRTH PLACE OF PARENT OR GUARDIAN

NAME OF PARENT OR GUARDIAN

YEAR	AGE SEPT. 1 YRS.	AGE SEPT. 1 MOS.	STREET ADDRESS	SCHOOL ATTENDED LAST YEAR PUBLIC	PRIVATE	BOTH	NONE	REASONS FOR NON-ATT'D'CE *	DATE OF WITHDRAWAL	REASONS FOR WITHDRAW'L *

CODE *

1. CHANGE OF RESIDENCE
2. ILLNESS
3. WORK
4. DEATH
5. UNDER SCHOOL AGE
6. OVER SCHOOL AGE
7.
8.
9.
10.

C A. FORM 60

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Important record for enforcement of compulsory attendance laws

census record for attendance purposes is the best solution of the problem. Boards, teachers, superintendents, and all the people need to be educated to the idea of an adequate usable and *used* school census.

X. Cards *vs.* book records. The record of attendance, tardiness, and similar items pertaining to pupils, is usually kept in a book called the *register*. But it is becoming increasingly common to keep most records on cards of varying sizes, which are filed alphabetically or in some other systematic way in cabinets or boxes made for the purpose. Cards are much better and more convenient in many ways. The card of the individual pupil may be taken out for reference or study at any time. If a card gets soiled or spoiled in any way, a fresh one can be made out at any time. The required data are more readily available and more easily read on a card than in a book. The card system is the modern method of keeping all sorts of records in business, industry, governmental affairs banks, and elsewhere. Suitable cards are now on the market, or forms can readily be devised and cards printed for a given school or county.

XI. Keeping the school register. One register with which the writer is familiar contains the following parts or kinds of records:

1. A record of attendance, absence, and tardiness for each term in the school year.
2. A record of the complete classification and standing of each pupil by grades and studies.
3. A record of the work done by each class during each term, and the assignment of lessons for the first day of the next term. This is an exceedingly helpful record if it is made out carefully and conscientiously.
4. A record and report of classification by ages, studies, and grades to be sent to the county superintendent at stated intervals.

5. A statistical record for use of the school clerk, giving figures for census report, attendance averages, summaries, etc., which are used in preparing the clerk's annual report to the county superintendent.

6. Blanks for recording names of pupils who have completed the work of the grades and are therefore promoted to higher grades.

7. A record of the names of all pupils who have completed all the work of the eight grades and are thus graduated or to be graduated.

8. A copy of the program in use during the past year or term. This is a valuable record for the next teacher.

9. A record of standings of all pupils in different subjects for the year. Such records should be kept on cumulative record cards.

10. A record of all visitors who have been present during the year.

11. Adequate spaces for recording summaries of attendance and absence.

For the benefit of the young beginning teacher in particular the following suggestions for keeping the register are given. It is fair to judge a teacher to some extent, at least, by the way she keeps her register. That book will be a good advertisement for the teacher if it is a model of neatness and accuracy, which it sometimes is not.

1. It is advisable to arrange all names in strict alphabetic order, or by grades, preferably alphabetically. The record may be kept for a few days on a sheet of legal cap paper until all pupils have entered or until the teacher knows the names of all who will enter. However, by the second Monday morning the register should be in the teacher's desk, filled in to date with names, dates, ages, and other required data.

2. Make entries in the register every day and see that all possible blanks are filled out. Keep the register strictly up to date at all times. It is the only safe way.

3. Keep the register in your desk on every school day. The

county superintendent or some other visitor may wish to see it. If you take it home Friday night, be sure to bring it back Monday morning. Give the register to the official visitor without any request on his or her part.

4. Set down all birth dates — year, month, day — the first week of school, just below the name of the child.

5. Put in all ages the first week of school, and be sure to see that they are the ages nearest to September 1.

6. Fill in all spaces as soon as possible — name of teacher, when school begins and ends, number of district, name of town, and all else. Leave no blank spaces if you know or can possibly find the data.

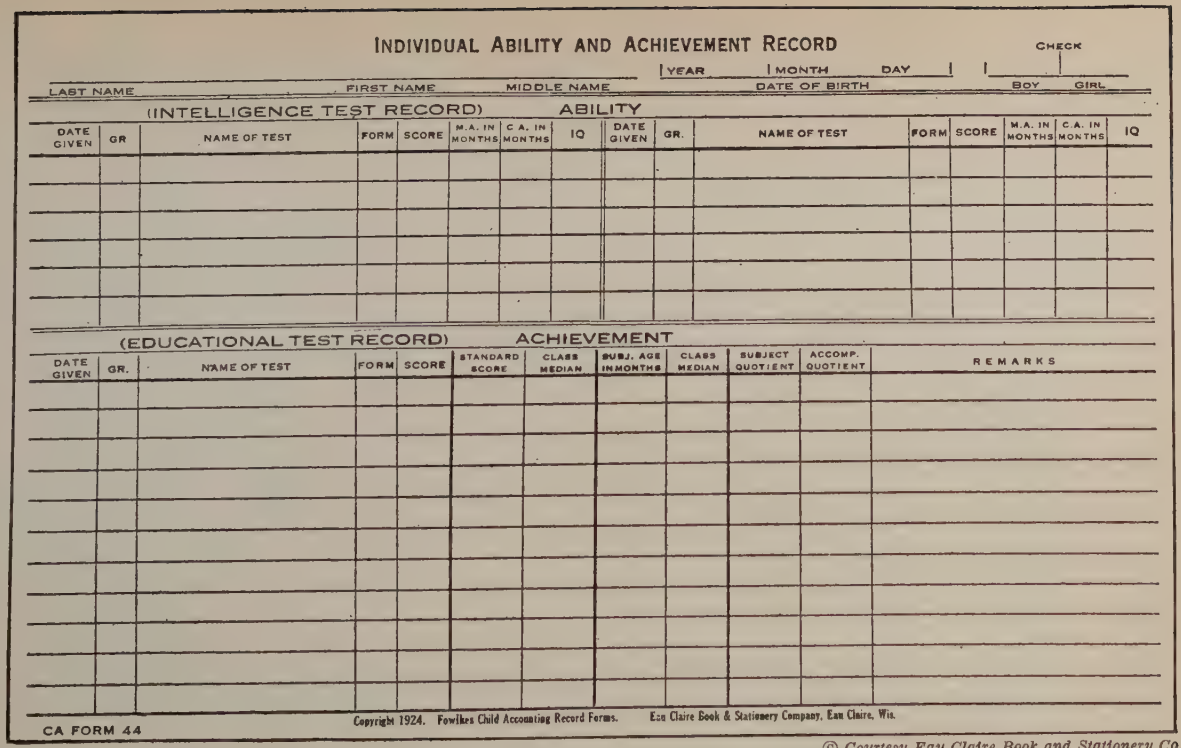
7. In many states a school month comprises twenty days, including holidays. The calendar month has nothing to do with it. Do not set down the names of the months; use instead *First Month*, *Second Month*, etc. The first month, for example, may begin on September 15 and close on October 15. Pay no attention to the calendar month, therefore.

8. Record absence only, if you wish a neat-looking page. In one register there is a rectangle for the week's record of five days. Monday's record is in the upper right-hand corner and Friday's in the center. If the child is present every day and on time, there is no mark in the rectangle, whatever.

9. Keep an accurate record of all visitors, including the date. Often the visitor records his own name. Enter the names of all mothers who attended your mothers' meeting.

10. Use a good quality of black ink or writing fluid which turns black after use. Use exactly the same shade all of the year. Use a first-class, fine-pointed, fresh pen — a pen of uniform size throughout the year. Keep a fresh, clean blotter in the register. A businesslike teacher always has a good supply of ink, pens, and blotters in her desk.

XII. Mentality and achievement records. It will be noticed that the individual-record card gives spaces for tabulating the results of both intelligence or mentality tests



INDIVIDUAL ABILITY AND ACHIEVEMENT RECORD

CHECK

YEAR | MONTH | DAY | BOY | GIRL

LAST NAME | FIRST NAME | MIDDLE NAME | DATE OF BIRTH

(INTELLIGENCE TEST RECORD) ABILITY

DATE GIVEN	GR	NAME OF TEST	FORM	SCORE	M.A. IN MONTHS	C.A. IN MONTHS	IQ	DATE GIVEN	GR.	NAME OF TEST	FORM	SCORE	M.A. IN MONTHS	C.A. IN MONTHS	IQ

(EDUCATIONAL TEST RECORD) ACHIEVEMENT

DATE GIVEN	GR.	NAME OF TEST	FORM	SCORE	STANDARD SCORE	CLASS MEDIAN	SUBJ. AGE IN MONTHS	CLASS MEDIAN	SUBJECT QUOTIENT	ACCOMP. QUOTIENT	REMARKS

CA FORM 44

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A record of native ability and of school progress

Many country schools are now making use of modern intelligence and achievement tests. A correct, convenient record should always be kept.

ACHIEVEMENT (CONTINUED)

DATE GIVEN	GR.	NAME OF TEST	FORM	SCORE	STANDARD SCORE	CLASS MEDIAN	SUBJ. AGE IN MONTHS	CLASS MEDIAN	SUBJECT QUOTIENT	ACCOMP QUOTIENT	REMARKS

© Courtesy Eau Claire Book and Stationery Co.

Achievement record — reverse of card

and achievement tests. It is probably true that such tests are not as yet common in country schools. However, if the teacher can be given instruction on the values and uses of such tests, she will doubtless desire to make them a part of her educational procedures. The young teacher can get a good start at any rate in this matter of understanding modern tests if she will read the chapter on Modern Measurements of Mentality and Achievement in the author's book, *Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher*, pp. 383-423. At the end of that chapter are references to good books on the subject. Such terms as mental age, norms, *I. Q.*, *A. Q.*, etc., may seem difficult to the young teacher, but by a little study she can readily become familiar with the associated ideas and meanings. No satisfactory record of a child's ability and progress can be made without use of modern intelligence and achievement tests.

PUPIL'S REPORT AND PROMOTION CARD

NAME_____ (Name of School Above)
Last First Middle

Grade_____ **FIRST SEMESTER**

Room_____ Sept._____ 19__ To Jan._____ 19__

DATE	Days Absent	Reliability	Obedience	Industry	Self-Control	Social Attitudes	Judgment	Punctuality	Initiative	Personal Habits	Thrift	Adjustment			A—Very Good B—Good C—Fair D—Poor F—Very Poor EXAMINED BY
Average															

_____ Teacher

Promoted to
Retained in _____ Grade _____ 19__

_____ Principal

PARENTS ARE CORDIALLY INVITED TO CONFER WITH THE TEACHER AND THE PRINCIPAL.

(c) 1929 by Mrs. Agness Boysen and F. E. Compton and Company.

PUPIL'S REPORT AND PROMOTION CARD _____

NAME _____ (Name of School Above)
Last First Middle

Grade _____ SECOND SEMESTER

Room _____ Jan. ____ 19__ To June ____ 19__

DATE	Days Absent	Reliability	Obedience	Industry	Self-Control	Social Attitudes	Judgment	Punctuality	Initiative	Personal Habits	Thrift	Adjustment			A—Very Good B—Good C—Fair D—Poor F—Very Poor EXAMINED BY
Average															

_____ Teacher

Promoted to
Retained in _____ Grade _____ 19__

_____ Principal

PARENTS ARE CORDIALLY INVITED TO CONFER WITH THE TEACHER AND THE PRINCIPAL.

(c) 1929 by Mrs. Agness Boysen and F. E. Compton and Company.

Report card showing only character traits

XIII. Recording character traits. On both individual-record cards and cards for reporting to parents the following traits of character are often listed: accuracy, attention, effort, self-control, trustworthiness, courage, courtesy, tactfulness, promptness, thrift, clear thinking, orderliness, health habits, study habits, cleanliness, obedience. It is now gradually being recognized not only that it is possible definitely to modify a child's character or personality, but that it is the duty of the school to make consistent and persistent effort in this most important of all forms of education. In this connection, the reader should re-read the chapter on Character — Conduct — Citizenship in this book. Character traits not only affect a child's progress

PUPIL'S HEALTH RECORD

(School Dist. No. or Name)

(Name of Child) (Parent's Name) (City, Village or Township) (County)

(Address 1st) (Address 2d) (Nationality) (Date of Birth) (Sex) (Color)

History of: Chickenpox (Give year) Diphtheria Rheumatism Tonsillitis Infantile Paralysis

Influenza Measles Mumps Pneumonia Scarlet Fever Smallpox

Typhoid Whooping Cough Chorea (St. Vitus' Dance) Other Diseases

Tuberculosis { (a) in self / (b) in contacts } Immunization against { (a) Small Pox / (b) Scarlet Fever / (c) Diphtheria / (d) Typhoid } Operations { Kind / Date }

Date								
Age								
Grade								
Grade Retardation								
Family Physician								
Diseases during year								
Height in inches								
Weight								
Normal Weight for Height								
Abnormal Pulse								
Defects of: Skin (Rash, Sores)								
Pediculosis								
Teeth	T P	T P	T P	T P	T P	T P	T P	T P
Tonsils	R L	R L	R L	R L	R L	R L	R L	R L
Nasal Breathing								
Ears: Discharging	R L	R L	R L	R L	R L	R L	R L	R L
Hearing	R L	R L	R L	R L	R L	R L	R L	R L
Eyes: Crossed								
Inflamed								
Eye Strain								
Vision	R L	R L	R L	R L	R L	R L	R L	R L
Speech: (Stutter, etc.)								

CODE: No defect —; Needs watching +; Definitely defective, referred to physician + +; Serious, immediate action and follow-up indicated + + +. T for temporary, P for permanent teeth. Use C for corrections obtained. D is child under medical or dental care. Determine grade retardation on basis that normal age for entering grade I is 6 years. Indicate habits by Good, Fair, Poor. Heart and Lungs noted only when physician makes examination.

(OVER)

Courtesy Wisconsin State Board of Health

A vitally important health record (obverse)

Coöperation of teacher, parent, county nurse, and physician is necessary to make this record of greatest value.

Date								
Glands: Thyroid								
Cervical								
Posture: Round Shoulders								
One Shoulder High								
Prominent Abdomen								
Winged Sh'der Blades								
Flat Feet								
Heart								
Lungs								
Health Habits: Eating								
Sleeping								
Dental								
Cleanliness								
Habits of Social Behavior								
Other Habits: (Enuresis. Sex Habits, Thumbsucking, etc.)								
Name of Examining Physician								
Name of Nurse								

Dr.'s Diag. and Suggestions

Other Suggestions, given

Wass., X-Ray, Urine, etc.

Home Visits: (Give Date, Reason and Results)

For further notes, home visits, etc., use supplementary card.

Wisconsin State Board of Health—School Series—Form 1—Revised 1-1-1926

Courtesy Wisconsin State Board of Health

Pupil's health record (reverse)

Only a well-trained, conscientious physician can make this a reliable record.

in school, but they have much to do with his efficiency, success, and happiness in life during both his school and his adult life. It is clearly one thing merely to record negative character traits, but it is another thing to change them positively for the better through practice of the opposite virtues day by day. The school must inculcate right ideals, and it must deliberately make for right habits and skills.

XIV. Health and physical records. During the past twenty-five years great progress has been made in many states in promoting the health of school children. Urban communities have done much more in this respect than the rural districts, but slowly people everywhere are learning that attention to the bodies and to the physical welfare in general of children, before disease and deformities have manifested themselves, is the best possible investment that can be made. The examination of our young men during the World War was a revelation to all thinking people in the disclosures that were made of bodily weaknesses and defects which should have been remedied in childhood. In many states the public-health nurse is rendering a most valuable service, and the number of such public servants needs to be increased many fold. In this connection, the attention of the reader is called to the chapter on the pupil's health in the author's book, *Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher*, pp. 154–188.

In this chapter (pages 234 and 235) there are shown the two sides of a Pupil's Health Record which has been used successfully in one state, particularly by county and city public-health nurses. Teachers should examine the items closely and should do all in their power to coöperate with doctor and nurse in improving those physical conditions which are remediable. When we consider the effect of children's contagious diseases, for example, upon the whole future of the

individual, it would seem that any sensible teacher must take an interest in and give attention to the paramount subject of health. Weight, teeth, tonsils, ears, eyes, posture, and health habits are matters of the most fundamental and far-reaching consequence in the life of any person.

XV. Reports to parents. It is a common practice in many schools to send some sort of report to parents once each month or once in six weeks. Usually these reports carry scholarship marks and perhaps a letter grading for conduct or deportment. Often the county superintendent furnishes the card. There are always spaces for attendance and tardiness records, and perhaps also for attitude or spirit, as well as conduct in general. Many teachers use letters, such as *E*, *G*, *F*, and *P*, rather than per cent marks. Or if the marking is on a scale of 100 per cent, only multiples of five are used, as 80, 85, or 90, which are probably sufficiently exact. No teacher is capable of judging a child much more closely, although we occasionally hear of teachers' using even fractional per cents. The report cards illustrated in this chapter are presented for their suggestiveness only. They can be modified in any way to suit the needs of a given school or county.

Many teachers, particularly beginners, make the serious mistake of giving out report cards with standings that are altogether too flattering and false in their evident implications. Beginning teachers often grade pupils higher than they deserve. Teachers have frequently marked pupils 90 to 100 per cent in various subjects when these same pupils could not get 50 to 60 per cent in the county diploma examinations in the same subjects. Such unwarranted standings, in the absence of adequate scholarship, are what one superintendent calls "good-will standings." Just what motives teachers may have in mind when they grade pupils

RURAL SCHOOLS OF COUNTY AND STATE[1]

REPORT TO PARENTS

Year.....

Report of.....

School.....Grade.....

.....Teacher

My dear Mrs.....

This report concerning your child is sent to you every six weeks so that you may know how he or she is getting along in school. The report is an attempt to give you an idea of how the individual is doing in his studies and also to give you the teacher's judgment as to what kind of a child he is becoming.

It is the purpose of our schools to develop the traits that characterize the best citizens. It is our desire to stress character development as our main objective. We wish to show you whether your child is developing such citizenship and character traits as we desire. We shall be glad to explain any seeming failures. Your help and coöperation is asked and we invite you to visit school often.

Page One of Rural Report Card

REPORT OF STUDIES

Date of this Report.....								
	1	2	3		1	2	3	
Reading								
Oral.....								
Silent.....								
Language.....								
Composition.....								
Spelling.....								
Arithmetic								
Number Skill...								
Problem Solving								
Geography.....								
History.....								
Penmanship.....								
Music.....								
Art.....								
Health								
Instruction.....								
.....								
.....								
.....								

REPORT OF ATTENDANCE

Date of this Report.....						
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Days present...						
Days absent...						
Times tardy...						

REPORT ON STANDARD ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

Subject	Pupil Score	Norm	County Median	Date

MARKING SYSTEM

E means excellent
G means good
F means fair (in black)
P means poor
F means failure (in red)

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING SCHOLARSHIP

Attention should be given to matters checked below

Report	1	2	3	4	5	6	Report	1	2	3	4	5	6
Accuracy.....							Effort.....						
Appearance of work .							Habits of Study.....						
Attendance.....							Health Habits.....						
Attention in class.....							Home Study.....						
Conduct.....							Self-Control.....						

Page Two of Rural Report Card

[1] Courtesy of Frank O. Holt, Registrar, University of Wisconsin.

CHARACTER EDUCATION

The schools are stressing good character. The habits and attitudes listed below are desirable for good character. The marks are indications by the teacher of such traits as have stood out during the last marking period as distinctly commendable as well as those for whose further development the coöperation of the parents is desired.

Traits which are well developed are marked.....A
Traits which show improvement are marked.....B
Traits which especially need to be developed are marked...C

TRAITS	REPORT					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
TRUSTWORTHINESS Tells the truth, tries to give correct impression						
Secures consent before using property of others						
COURAGE Perseveres in spite of failure						
Attacks difficult tasks bravely						
Confesses wrongdoing and mistakes and makes amends						
COURTESY Is polite in speech and acts						
TACTFULNESS Gives criticism in a courteous manner						
Contributes his share to welfare of school						
Is respectful and obedient to those in authority						
Profits by suggestions of others						
PROMPTNESS Has tasks completed at appointed time						
Is at right place at right time equipped for work						
THRIFT Uses time to good advantage						
Avoids wasting materials						
Does not deface books and property belonging to himself and others						
CLEAR THINKING Is accurate in his work						
Keeps to the point						
Expresses himself clearly						
Concentrates upon task in hand						
Discriminates between essentials and nonessentials						
ORDERLINESS Keeps books and property in good order						
HEALTH Cleanly in habits of person and dress						
Takes reasonable care of health						
Sits and stands correctly						

Page Three of Rural Report Card

PARENT'S SIGNATURE

1.....

2.....

3.....

4.....

5.....

6.....

This is to certify that.....

has on.....been promoted from grade.....to grade.....

.....Teacher

This is to certify that.....

has on.....been promoted from grade.....to grade.....

.....Teacher

Page Four of Rural Report Card

JANESVILLE PUBLIC SCHOOLS
REPORT TO PARENTS

REPORT OF _____

GRADE_____ SCHOOL_____

_____TEACHER

SCHOOL YEAR_____

I. SCHOLASTIC RECORD

	1	2	3	4	5	6	YEAR
READING: SILENT							
ORAL							
LANGUAGE							
SPELLING							
ARITHMETIC							
PENMANSHIP							
GEOGRAPHY							
HISTORY							
ART							
MUSIC							
PHYSICAL EDUCATION							

A-EXCELLENT: B-GOOD: C-FAIR: D-POOR: F-FAILURE

II. DESIRABLE HABITS AND ATTITUDES

	1	2	3	4	5	6
MANNERS						
OBEDIENCE						
EFFORT						
WORKMANSHIP						
COOPERATION AND LOYALTY						
CARE OF SCHOOL PROPERTY						

√ INDICATES COMMENDABLE DEVELOPMENT

\+ INDICATES IMPROVEMENT

— INDICATES NEED OF EFFORT TO SHOW IMPROVEMENT

Courtesy of Superintendent of Schools

A modern type of report card (obverse)

REPORT OF ATTENDANCE

	1	2	3	4	5	6
DAYS PRESENT						
DAYS ABSENT						
TIMES TARDY						

To Parents:

This report concerning your child is sent you six times during the school year. It is an attempt to give you an idea of how your child is doing in his studies and the teacher's judgment as to what kind of a child he is becoming.

We will be glad to explain any seeming failures. Your help and co-operation is desired. We invite you to visit school often.

Will you please sign below and see that the card is returned to the teacher at once.

PARENT'S SIGNATURE

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

6. _____

PROMOTION RECORD

_____

IS PROMOTED TO GRADE _____

DATE _____

TEACHER _____

Modern type of report to parents (reverse)

MILWAUKEE NORMAL TRAINING SCHOOL

REPORT TO PARENTS

Pupil's Name _____ Grade _____

TEACHERS' RATING OF PUPIL'S QUALITIES

NOTE: Parents are requested to regard check marks as indicative of the present needs or problems of the individual pupil as they are revealed in the school. As the school and home are mutually interested in the development of desirable traits, we ask the co-operation of parents in developing the traits checked.

SOCIAL, ETHICAL AND MORAL TRAITS	Sept. Nov.	Dec. Jan.	Feb. Mar.	April June	MENTAL TRAITS AND HABITS OF WORK	Sept. Nov.	Dec. Jan.	Feb. Mar.	April June
Unselfishness					Self-Reliance				
Friendliness					Effort				
Courtesy					Persistence				
Cheerfulness					Resourcefulness				
Fairness					Concentration				
Co-operation					Accuracy				
Sense of Humor					Attention				
Leadership					Originality				
Consideration for Feelings of Others					Retention				
Respect for Rights of Others					Neatness				
Group Responsibility					Oral Expression of Ideas				
Obedience to Authority					Ability to Think and Plan				
Acceptance of Rules and Regulations					Good Standards of Workmanship				
Truthfulness					Judgment				
Straightforwardness					APPRECIATION				
Self-Confidence					Music				
Dependability					Art				
Punctuality					Literature				
Attitude toward Criticism					PHYSICAL ENERGY				
Responsibility for Own Acts					Self-Control				
Standards of Conduct					Poise				
					Muscular Co-ordination				
					Health Habits				

Remarks: _____

Courtesy of Dr. Adelaide M. Ayer, Director of Training School

A modern personality record and report (obverse)

REPORT ON SCHOOL WORK

TEACHERS' MARKS

	Sept. Nov.	Dec. Jan.	Feb. Mar.	April June	
Reading					A. Superior or Excellent
Oral English					
Written English					B. Better than Average or Very Good
Literature					
Arithmetic					C. Average or Good
Social Studies					
History					D. Poorer than Average or Fair
Geography					
Elementary Science					E. Very inferior or Poor
Handwriting					
French					
Latin					
Music					
Art					
Manual Training					
Physical Education					

ATTENDANCE RECORD

	Sept. Nov.	Dec. Jan.	Feb. Mar.	April June
No. of School Days				
No. of Days Absent				
No. of Times Tardy				

NOTE: Teachers' Marks are based on daily work in the classroom and show the teachers' opinions as to the extent to which the pupil is meeting regular requirements and obligations.

RECORD OF PUPIL'S PERFORMANCE ON STANDARD ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

NOTE: The report below shows the pupil's standing in objective tests in reading, arithmetic, and spelling as compared with definite standards of (1) mental age, (2) chronological age (3) present class average and (4) grade standard for the country at large.

\+ means above standard.
= means at standard.
— means below standard.
R means receiving special remedial work

PUPIL'S STANDING IN	FIRST SEMSTER Reading	ARITHMETIC Computation	ARITHMETIC Reasoning	Spelling	SECOOD SEMSTER Reading	ARITHMETIC Computation	ARITHMETIC Reasoning	Spelling
In relation to his own mental age								
In relation to his own chronological age								
In relation to his present class average								
In relation to the grade standard for the country at large								

Remarks: _____

To Parent: Please sign and return promptly. PARENT'S SIGNATURE

(Nov.) _____

(Jan.) _____

(Mar.) _____

Report to parents — Milwaukee State Teachers College (reverse)

REPORT *to* PARENTS

ON THE SCHOOL WORK OF

_____

_____Grade_____School

Town of_____

East Dane County, Wisconsin

For the Year 19____

PLEDGE

"I pledge allegiance to the flag of the United States of America, and to the republic for which it stands; one Nation, indivisible, with Liberty and Justice for all."

Esther Krakow,
County Superintendent

_____
Teacher

Courtesy of Hammond and Stephens Company, Fremont, Nebraska

Standings for six week periods beginning

_____19___, ending_____19____

STUDIES	1	2	3	4	5	6	Final Avg.
Spelling							
Reading							
Writing							
Arithmetic							
Geography							
Language							
Physiology							
History							
Civil Gov't							
Social Studies							
Agriculture							
Art							
Music							
Behavior							
Times tardy							
Days absent							

TRAITS *of* PUPIL

ATTITUDE TOWARD SCHOOL WORK	Note—Each period place × mark opposite the trait to which attention is called					
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th
Very Commendable						
Shows Improvement						
Gives Up Too Easily						
Copies						
Work Carelessly Done						
Wastes Time						
Indolent						
RECITATIONS						
Very Satisfactory						
Shows Improvement						
Inattentive						
Work Shows Falling Off						
Capable of Doing Better						
Promotion in Danger						
Seldom Does Well						
Appears not to Try						
Comes Poorly Prepared						
CONDUCT						
Very Good						
Shows Improvement						
Restless						
Whispers Too Much						
Annoys Others						
Inclined to Mischief						

TO PARENTS

The purpose of this report is, by means of the credits, to give parents an idea of the success of the child in the work of the school. This card records attendance, number of times tardy, and the attitude of the pupil toward his school work. The report should be sent to you within one week after the close of each six weeks. Should it be delayed beyond that time or should you at any time discover anything of an unsatisfactory character by means of this report or otherwise, you are requested to consult with the teacher at once. By this means causes of misunderstanding will be removed and the parents and teachers, who are most interested in the welfare of the child, will be able to coöperate to the best advantage.

SIGNATURE OF PARENT

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____

GRADE

A	B	C	D	E
95 to 100	86 to 94	80 to 85	75 to 80	Below 75

far above what they deserve is not always apparent; perhaps they wish to secure the good will of parents in this way, and thus to escape criticism. In grading examination papers, teachers are often quite inclined to be careless and to overlook entirely many errors in written English. This is true in language and in other subjects as well. Even an arithmetic exercise or paper should be scrutinized by the teacher for errors in spelling, punctuation, paragraphing, and the like. This does not mean that the teacher will find and mark all the errors on every paper of every pupil every time, by any means.

XVI. Reports to county superintendent. In most states and counties the reports of the teacher each month or term to the county superintendent constitute one of the most important services which the teacher renders. *Such reports should be made out neatly, fully, and on time. This is a very important duty.* A teacher reveals herself in no way more distinctly than in her habits relative to sending in reports. If such reports are neglected or carelessly made, the effects are damaging to all parties concerned. The only safe course is to give the matter adequate attention, to do it right, and to do it promptly. Samples of such reports are

POSTCARD REPORT TO COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT

....

Teacher Address Town and District

1 — Month....., 193..

2 — Number of days taught..... Enrollment for month.....

3 — Total days absence..... Total times tardy.....

4 — Average daily attendance.....

5 — Percentage of attendance for month.....

6 — Number of pupils absent.....

7 — Causes of absence

Illness..... Weather.....

Bad roads..... Work at home.....

Other reasons.....

(Send this card to county superintendent at end of each school month.)

Attendance Report of _____ Month

FIRST, SECOND, THIRD, ETC

Town _____ Dist. No. _____ Name of School _____

Teacher's Name _____ Address _____

		BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL
1. Whole number enrolled during month				
2. No. days actually taught this month				
3. Total days of attendance of all children				
4. Average daily attendance (line 3 divided by 2)				
5. Number neither absent nor tardy				
6. Total No. of days absence caused by	Illness			
	Bad roads			
	Weather conditions			
	Work at home			
	_____			
7. Total No. days of absence				
8. Per cent of attendance (divide line 4 by 1)				

I certify the above report to be correct, _____

Teacher.

(OVER)

Courtesy of Superintendent, Dane County, Wisconsin

One form of attendance report to county superintendent

List pupils who have been absent more than five days this month, due to work at home, or indifference

NAME OF PARENT	PUPIL'S NAME	AGE	DISTANCE FROM SCHOOL	No. Days School has been in session this month	Total No. Days missed by pupils this month

Courtesy of Superintendent, Dane County, Wisconsin

Attendance report to county superintendent — reverse side

TEACHER'S MONTHLY REPORT TO COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT _____ Dist. No. _____

Teacher _____ Address _____ Month ending _____ 19__

PUPILS ENROLLED THIS MONTH
Write names of pupils in same numerical order each month

1. Length of School Year _____ Months

2. Number of Days Now Taught _____
This report is to be mailed at the close of each month to your Co. Superintendent

	Grade	Age: Males	Age: Females	No. of Days Absent this Month 1	Days Present this Month 2	Total No. of Days Present this Year 3	Cause of Absence: Illness	Bad Roads	Weather	Home Work	Indifference	Truancy
1												
2												
3												
4												
5												
6												
7												
8												
9												
10												
11												
12												
13												
14												
15												
16												
17												
18												
19												
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32												
33												
34												
35												
36												
37												
38												
39												
40												
41												
42												
43												
44												
45												
Total												

NOTE:—Divide No. 5 by No. 6 to find No. 7, Average Daily Attendance.

4 No. Pupils Enrolled for Entire Mo. _____ 6 No. of Days Taught this Month _____ 8 Percentage for Month _____ 10 No. Absences for Year _____

5 Aggregate No. Days Attended this Mo. _____ 7 Average Daily Attendance _____ 9 Percentage for Year _____ 11 No. Absences for Month _____

Courtesy of Superintendent, Rock County, Wisconsin

Attendance report to county superintendent

REPORT OF DELINQUENTS—MONTHLY ATTENDANCE.....DISTRICT. No. .....

.....Town .....Teacher.....Address .....192....

All pupils between the ages of 7 and 14, living within 2 miles of the school house, who are not enrolled during the first month and in regular attendance thereafter, unless prevented from attending by sickness, should be reported to the Sheriff promptly.

G. T. LONGBOTHAM,
County Superintendent of Schools

Child's Name	Parent's Name	Address	Child's Age	Distance from School	Month of School	Absence During Month	Should they be reported? Are Parents extremely Poor? Ans. "yes" or "no."	
							Poor?	Reported?

Courtesy of Superintendent, Rock County, Wisconsin

Teacher's report of delinquents to county superintendent

DAILY ATTENDANCE AND MONTHLY SCHOLARSHIP RECORD

FOR MONTH

Beginning _____ 19__

Ending _____ 19__

No. of Days Taught _____

Dist. No. _____ Township _____ Teacher

Form 74 Hammond & Stephens Co., Fremont, Nebr.

DAY OF MONTH

NAMES OF PUPILS
Opening Day's Registration Should be Listed Alphabetically

Number

Grade

Age

Sex: Male, Female

1st Week: M T W T F

2nd Week: M T W T F

3rd Week: M T W T F

4th Week: M T W T F

Scholarship: Arithmetic, Drawing, Grammar, History, Physiology, Physiology—Hygiene, Reading, Spelling, Geography, Agriculture, Civil Gov't.

No. of Days Each Pupil Was Present

Each Pupil's No. of Days Absent

Cases of Tardiness

Times Each Pupil Was Tardy

Special Explanations

SCHOLARSHIP MARKS

A=Excellent E=Failure
B=Good I=Absent from examination
C=Average I=Incomplete
D=Poor

MEMORANDA

ATTENDANCE SYMBOLS

R=Registered
RT=Entered by Transfer
RT=Returned
L=Left or Loss
T=Tardy

~=Absent in Forenoon
/=Absent in Afternoon
X=Absent all Day

Monthly Totals

Enter by Number Cases of Absence

4	5	6	7	8	9
Illness	Bad Roads	Weather	Bus Work	Indifference	Truancy

Courtesy of Hammond and Stephens Company, Fremont, Nebraska

Monthly report of teacher to county superintendent

presented in this chapter. Often such items as the following are also reported: daily program; classification of pupils; standings of pupils; record of visitors and of visiting officials and others; condition of property; social events; public or other programs; facts concerning the library; improvements of any kind. Post-card reports at the end of each month are convenient and easy to make out and send. One such form is printed herewith. See pages 248 to 253.

XVII. Reports for state superintendent. Education is primarily an affair of the state, and the state must know all facts and conditions relative to schools and teachers if the children of the state are to be fully safeguarded in their educational rights. The information called for in one state is listed here by way of illustrating the magnitude of the situation and the problem: (1) Dates of opening and closing school. (2) Number of days school was actually taught. (3) Kind of certificate held by teacher. (4) Name and address of teacher. (5) Date of making report. (6) Has the teacher contracted to teach this school the coming year? (7) If she has contracted to teach another school, give name and location of school. (8) Whole number of pupils enrolled during year. (9) Number admitted from other public schools within the state. (10) Net enrollment. (11) How many were under six years of age? (12) How many were over twenty years of age? (13) Number who graduated in 1929. (14) Total number of days attended by all children. (15) Number of days school has actually been taught. (16) Average daily attendance. (17) Number entering high school. (18) Number attending 160 days or over; 140–159 days; 120–139 days; 100–119 days; 80–99 days; less than 80 days. (19) Total number. (20) Number enrolled whose ages are 7 to 13 years, inclusive. (21) Number of pupils, aged 7 to 13 years, attending 120 days or more. (22) Number of

children present every day school was in session. (23) Number of pupils, aged 7 to 13 years, who did not attend 120 days but were exempted under the law or had valid excuses. (24) Number attending your school who lived in other districts. (25) Number of pupils school building will accommodate. (26) If enrollment reached or exceeded 60 pupils for 20 consecutive days, give enrollment for each term. (27) Number of days school has been closed on account of contagious disease. (28) How many of those days were made up later on? (29) Size of grounds — an acre, more than acre, or less than acre. (30) Is the school supplied with a flag? (31) Has it been displayed this year according to law? (32) Has provision been made for keeping down dust in sweeping? (33) How many public gatherings have been held in the schoolhouse during the year? (Include also special public school exercises which may have been given in other places in the district.) (34) Number of volumes added to the library during the year by gift or by purchase with funds other than township library funds. (35) Amount expended in purchase of library books with funds other than township library fund. (36) Number of library books rebound during the year. (37) Cost of such rebinding done during year. (38) Number of books loaned during the year to pupils — to others. (39) Total number of volumes in the school library. (40) Total cost of the books now in the library, including price of books secured by gift. (41) Number of years teacher has been in present position. (42) Total number of years of teaching experience. (43) Number of years of schooling beyond the eighth grade. (44) Where was teacher trained — high school, county rural normal, state teachers college, university, college, or special school? (45) How long was the training course? (46) Did she attend summer school (6 weeks or more) last summer? (47) If

any deaf or blind children are known to be in the district, give names and addresses of parents. (48) Has a school society been organized in the district? (49) Enumerate all special activities carried on in school, including industrial hand work, warm lunches, evening schools, playground exercises, home work, agricultural clubs, parent-teacher associations, school fairs, etc. (50) Give net enrollment by grades.

XVIII. History of school. One record which it is desirable to keep in every country school is an accurate and full account of all the important events of the year. A well-bound blank book should be procured which will hold the record for several years, and then day by day and week by week the record should be made, giving dates and the names of all persons who may have participated in any way. An upper-grade girl or boy may very well assist the teacher in keeping such a book. It is good training in English. All facts pertaining to programs; evening meetings; mothers' meetings; school exhibits; acquisition of playground apparatus or other school equipment; organization of a parent-teachers' club or any other clubs of any sort; special holiday observance; visits of county superintendent, parents, and others; introduction of new textbooks; excursions; giving of modern tests; visits to county seat; contagious diseases; closing of school; holidays, vacations, etc. — all this should be conscientiously recorded. In years to come such a record will be valuable and may well serve a useful purpose as a genuine historical source.

XIX. Library facts and figures. In reports to county and state superintendent of schools there are usually blank spaces for giving library statistics. The library is so important a part of the school equipment that every thoughtful teacher is careful to see that books and bookcases are kept

in good condition. Moreover, the card catalog is kept up to date and lists of books are posted suitable for use in history, geography, agriculture, and other subjects. A complete list of all books in the library should be kept in a book of adequate size and strong binding. In this book the titles, names of authors, numbers, dates of acquisition, and prices should all be carefully set down and kept up to date. When a cover gets loose, the book should be rebound, if it is worth it. Dilapidated books had better be destroyed, whether textbooks or reference books. The well-trained rural teacher keeps close track of all library books through the use of loan lists — on individual cards or in a loan book.

XX. Making use of facts and figures. Merely recording facts and figures and reporting them to county superintendents for legal purposes is certainly not enough. Clearly the chief purpose of records and reports is to improve the schools and to promote the ends of education. It often happens that records are made which are never used in any way to benefit the children. A notable example of this is the setting down of the scores derived from achievement and diagnostic tests without providing the necessary remedial procedures, which alone justify such testing. People have a right to know what is going on in their schools, but in most cases they are quite indifferent. Superintendents and teachers could carry out no more profitable campaign and program than that of broadcasting all sorts of information relative to the conditions and needs of rural schools. Matters of enrollment, attendance, achievements of pupils, promotions, graduations, costs, changes in courses of study, changes in books or procedures, special events, acquisition of playground or other equipment, contagious diseases, and many other facts should, in some way, be brought forcibly to the attention of parents, patrons, and taxpayers.

In some districts the teacher has made excellent use of a column in some near-by local paper, and in other cases a hectographed school paper issued once a week or biweekly has been the medium for informing the public of school affairs. It often happens that the enforcement of the law relative to compulsory attendance and contagious disease is made easier if people know the exact situation. In financial matters people need to know whether they are realizing adequate returns on their investment in taxes, and they cannot know this unless facts and figures are readily available. Some day more than now we shall use graphs and diagrams, colored and otherwise, which will show at a glance striking facts of public concern relative to rural schools. It is high time to make use of judicious advertising in the interests of education. Honest broadcasting of important items of information will do much to secure coöperation and financial support.

XXI. The teacher and her records. The attitude of the individual teacher toward the collection, tabulation, and reporting of statistics is of the greatest significance to her and to her school. Teachers should not be asked merely to make records, to give tests, and to record results without in some way being shown the value and application of what they do. Many teachers resent all participation in record making and reporting as an infringement upon their teaching time; but it is not difficult to show such teachers the value of this work for purposes of comparison and of improvement in their teaching. The writer has observed the attitude of teachers toward modern intelligence and achievement testing, and he is convinced that far too often teachers are not sufficiently directed as to the implications and direct practical use of the results. If teachers were always shown how the facts gathered and recorded could be made to

improve their daily teaching, they would be more enthusiastic, cheerful, and willing to coöperate. Teachers need a more intelligent attitude toward all this testing and the gathering of statistics. They must be taken into the confidence of supervisors and superintendents, and above all they must be led to see in really sensible, helpful records and reports a great means of aiding them to be more efficient and more contented teachers.

XXII. General suggestions to the teacher.

1. Before making any record or filling out any reports, be sure to read all the directions. If you are not sure you are right, fill in the space lightly with a lead pencil. Later, when you know you are right, the record can be made in ink.

2. Keep all records strictly up to date and fill out and send all reports on time. Your reputation as a businesslike teacher will depend much on the way in which you do this.

3. It is often very useful to keep copies of the reports you send to the superintendent, for later reference. Sometimes it will be possible to secure duplicate blanks for this purpose.

4. Do not trust to memory in recording statistics. Set down the facts on paper *when* you are sure of them and leave them in the register.

5. Do not be satisfied with merely recording *grades* for character traits or health habits. Your great purpose is to train and develop the child in body, mind, and character. In order to do this the child must practice daily the desired habits and skills. Write to the National Tuberculosis Association, New York City, relative to health "chores" and to the Character Education Institution, Washington, D. C., for character-training "chores." Habitual responses are the only sure means of growth. Read the chapter on character training in this book, and the chapter on pupil's

health in the author's *Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher*.

6. Try to secure at least an up-to-date register and the modern individual, cumulative report card. Remember that your duty is to the whole child — body, mind, and personality.

7. Do not bank on the results of one intelligence test. It is unsafe as a *sole* means of classification. Perhaps one intelligence test should be given each child each year. Besides this, there will of course be several achievement tests in different subjects and many diagnostic tests from week to week.

8. Your main purpose in reporting to parents is to acquaint them with the progress of the child in school in all particulars. It is of great importance to secure the coöperation of parents. A report card may be useful or useless, depending on its character and on the attitude of teachers and parents toward it. Personal interviews and personal communications are also sometimes necessary.

9. Look upon all records and reports as a means to an end. The great end is the improvement of the individual. The mechanical recording of unusable statistical data is a waste of valuable time.

10. A sufficient supply of good ink, pens, penholders, pencils, erasers, blotters, rulers, and paper is a necessity. Fifteen-inch rulers with metal edges are often very handy.

11. Comparative figures have the greatest value. The record should be made so that it will be easy to compare a child's present attainments with his past performance in order to know whether or not progress is being made. Figures showing what is accomplished by other pupils, classes, or schools are highly useful for purposes of comparison. The

rural teacher should know the scores, norms, and medians in other country schools of the county, state, and nation.

Class Discussion Questions

1. Examine a school register and find out *why* the different records are made. Which ones are largely of a legal nature and which ones have to do with the actual work of the school?

2. If you were a beginning teacher going to a new school to teach, what facts would you like to know about the pupils before the first day?

3. Which of the records enumerated in the section on kinds of records are not needed or are not commonly found in rural schools?

4. Make out and rule two blank sheets (both sides of each) which will give all the data listed in the section on kinds of records.

5. Examine a register and an individual-record card to see how they conform to the marks of a good record given in this chapter.

6. What is the difference between *number enrolled* and *number belonging?* What is meant by *net enrollment?*

7. Record attendance of twenty pupils for three months, and compute the average daily attendance? What is a good average attendance? A good per cent of attendance?

8. What per cent of the children on the census list should be in school, on the average, do you think?

9. Examine a school register and find out, after studying this chapter, what necessary data it does not give space for.

10. Which do you think is better for report cards to parents — the use of letters, such as E, G, etc., or per cent marks? Give reasons. Do you feel that marks ending in five or zero are as near as the teacher can honestly get to the facts?

11. Just why is a cumulative, individual-record card of great importance?

12. Suppose you do not find a proper register or record blanks in your school — what can you do about it?

13. What use can the teacher make of the census list? What are the compulsory, legal school ages in your state?

14. Why are cards better than books for making records?

15. How does the register advertise the teacher? Suppose you are a poor writer? What shall you do about it?

16. Name several good mentality and achievement tests which a rural teacher may use with profit. See the author's book, *Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher.*

17. What good does it do to record character traits and health habits? Suppose there is no change from month to month?

18. Tell how the rural teacher can improve the health of the child by securing the coöperation of certain people. What can you do if you do not have a health nurse?

19. Indicate several uses to which a well-kept school history can be put. See if you can add ten items of interest and value to those in this chapter.

20. What facts should you know about your school library by the end of the first school month? How can you use a weekly school paper to acquaint the adults of the district with the books which they may like to read? Can you secure a traveling library and then send a list of the books into each home?

Useful Supplementary Readings

1. Almack, J. C., and Bursch, J. F. — *The Administration of Consolidated and Village Schools;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1925.

2. Hillegas, M. B., Briggs, T. H., and Sixty Other Writers — *The Classroom Teacher;* The Classroom Teacher, Inc. 1928. Vol. I. contains a valuable discussion of records.

3. Cubberley, E. P. — *Public School Administration;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1922.

4. Eells, H. L., Moeller, H. C., and Swain, C. C. — *Rural School Management;* Charles Scribner's Sons. 1924.

5. Finney, R. L., and Schafer, A. L. — *The Administration of Village and Consolidated Schools;* The Macmillan Company. 1920.

6. Foster, E. M. (Ed.) — *Bulletin 24, 1928. Reports of*

Committees on Uniform Records and Reports, Government Printing Office.

7. National Education Association Committee — *Final Report of the Committee on Uniform Records and Reports;* Made as a report to the National Council. 1912. U. S. Bureau of Education.

8. Reeder, Ward G. — *The Fundamentals of Public School Administration;* The Macmillan Company. 1930.

9. Snedden, D., and Allen, W. H. — *School Reports and School Efficiency;* The Macmillan Company. 1908.

10. Strayer, G. D., and Engelhardt, N. L. — *The Classroom Teacher;* American Book Company. 1920.

11. Wilkinson, W. A. — *Rural School Management;* Silver, Burdett and Company. 1917.

CHAPTER X

READING: STIMULATING ASSIGNMENTS[1]

The teaching of reading in all grades has greatly improved in the better schools during the past decade. Silent reading objectives and procedures have produced results, where the teaching has been skillful, that are little short of marvelous as compared with the work done fifteen to twenty or more years ago. Those teachers do the best work who have the clearest aims or objectives. It is now understood that the time of the usual recitation period should often be used as a study and assignment period when children are instructed and trained to work independently by themselves during study periods. In this chapter some assignment objectives for upper-grade reading will be set up for the teacher's guidance. The average rural teacher does better work in the lower grades than she does in the upper; one reason for this is that primary technique is stressed most in training institutions. Another reason is found in the common lack of knowledge and skill in upper-grade subjects, especially literature, on the part of the ordinary high-school graduate. It is hoped that the reading and study of this chapter will give many rural teachers a higher conception of more effective objectives. Diagnosis of pupil weaknesses and the use of remedial measures require that the teacher *know* the facts.

[1] Permission to print the larger part of this chapter on reading has been given by The F. A. Owen Publishing Company, in whose magazine, *Normal Instructor and Primary Plans*, most of this discussion by the author originally appeared.

I. Objectives in reading.[1]

1. To establish mastery of the mechanics of reading by the attainment of:
   - *a.* Accuracy of word recognition
   - *b.* Wide span of recognition and elimination of retrogressive eye movements, in order to develop rapid comprehension
   - *c.* Recognition of sentences as units of thought
   - *d.* Increase of vocabulary and development of word consciousness by the use of comparison, phonetic analysis, contextual clues, and so forth
2. To build efficient habits of study:
   - *a.* By making it possible for the child to succeed at his work through careful fitting of the work to his abilities
   - *b.* By having a definite aim for each reading lesson, properly coördinated with the aims of previous and succeeding lessons
   - *c.* By developing the ability to find information, to select main thoughts, and to organize and outline
   - *d.* By giving exercises in following simple directions, in dramatizing or acting simple selections, in matching words and phrases, and in constructing or drawing from a simple set of instructions
   - *e.* By leading the child to find answers to simple problems and by encouraging him to discover for himself problems worthy of study and investigation
   - *f.* By teaching the pupil how to use books, and by promoting the habit of consulting books both for information and for pleasure

[1] This section and the following one are used here through the courtesy of the Charles E. Merrill Company, publishers of *The Study Readers.*

g. By using informal tests to check comprehension and to find out individual difficulties

h. By having the child read directions for occupational work, etc., and follow them accurately

i. By having the child read questions silently and give answers orally

j. By encouraging children to form mental pictures of what they read

k. By teaching the use of the dictionary and other reference books

l. By having the pupil compare characters in stories with those in life

m. By holding the child responsible for good and careful work and for completing any task which he has begun

3. To extend and make significant the experiences of boys and girls and to increase their stock of information

4. To stimulate the child to think and to analyze and evaluate meanings — that is, to comprehend a problem in its entirety, to go about the solution of it systematically and efficiently, to draw upon previous experience, to appraise facts, to weigh evidence, to interpret critically, and to make good use of the outcomes of these processes

5. To develop strong motives for, and permanent interests in, reading

6. To fix and maintain the child's tastes and ideals on a high plane.

II. Realizing objectives through texts. In their selection and organization of subject matter:

1. Are the readers based upon scientific studies for the determination of the value of reading materials?

2. Does the content appeal to the child's immediate interest?

3. Are the laws of learning observed?

4. Is provision made, through systematic arrangement within each book and from book to book, for the consistent development of all the reading skills?

5. Do the readers provide for suitable units of material, first, through short sentences and phrases, then through longer sentences and paragraphs, and finally through reading units adapted to the corresponding work of the grade?

6. Is the vocabulary carefully controlled, especially in the primary grades?

7. Do the readers contain sufficient and well-systematized informal tests and self-checking techniques?

8. Is the material graded to correlate with content subjects?

9. Do the books utilize illustrations effectively?

In their recognition of and adaptation to the child's needs:

1. Do the readers subordinate mechanics to meaning?

2. Do they provide suggestions and questions to bring out the purpose and fundamental character of each selection?

3. Do they make the pupil conscious of his growing power in reading and stimulate the independent use of that power?

4. Are the readers correlated with the natural interests and activities of the child and do they lead out, through concrete suggestions, into other activities having educative value?

5. Do the readers have an ethical value, without attempting to "preach" to the child?

6. Do the books encourage the child to read extensively?

7. Do they recognize individual differences among children, and do they provide for remedial work with individual pupils?

8. Do they keep the child's text free from suggestions and references for the teacher?

9. Does the format of the text in each book make it suitable for the designated grade: in page finish; in size and style of type; in margins and spacing; in length of line and paragraphing?

In their recognition of and adaptation to the teacher's needs —

1. Do the readers, manuals, work books, reading cards, etc., converge toward the accomplishment of permanently valuable ends?

2. Do the readers and the auxiliary material establish definite goals, checks, and standards?

3. Can the readers be used effectively with or without the supplementary materials?

4. Are the books useful in the hands of young teachers, as well as in the hands of well-trained, experienced teachers?

III. Purposeful preparatory exercises. To assign the reading lesson rightly in upper grades is to prepare the pupils for a profitable study period, during which time they will attack and solve definite problems. The teacher's work of assignment should be so stimulating and the goal she sets so plain that the members of the class will be thoroughly interested in performing a task, which, as a result of the assignment, seems to them very much worth while. The pupil's attitude and response are thus quite different from that which results when the teacher says, "You may read the next lesson for to-morrow," or "We shall read the next five pages in class next time." The author knows by long experience in teaching upper-grade reading to boys and girls and to intending teachers that it pays to get the minds of the members of the class ready for the next unit of subject matter. And not only that, but he has found that the success of the recitation, so-called, depends in large measure upon the assigning of definite tasks, the setting of particular

problems, the giving of specific directions. If plenty of time is taken in a study recitation the day before, then the study hour, when pupils are working by themselves, will be an interesting and profitable period during which the problem of discipline will for the most part take care of itself. Interested pupils do not usually cause trouble.

IV. Silent *vs.* oral reading. Helpful discussions do not deal merely in generalities, however glittering they may be; therefore, detailed concrete suggestions will be given in this chapter. The one-room country school is the most difficult type of school to teach, and the country teacher, if anyone, needs definite, practical suggestions for her work in order to secure successful results. Let us not forget that silent reading should predominate in upper grades. There should, of course, be some oral reading in the recitation; but that is not the chief thing to be done. Such oral reading ought not to take more than half the time at any rate, and sometimes not nearly so much as half. The recitation in upper-grade reading is an opportunity for pupils to report on the results of their study. Teacher and pupils should talk matters over; both should ask questions; and both should answer questions. Certain portions of the text should, of course, be read aloud and read repeatedly, and the good teacher often sets the correct example in this oral reading. There must be expressive reading, to be sure, and there needs to be voice and phonic drills, but such drills are not an end in themselves. The good recitation in reading will stimulate pupils to read much more outside of class, and it will also develop the habit of critically reading the printed page.

V. Informational reading *vs.* inspirational reading. We need to discriminate sharply between informational and inspirational reading, when assigning the lesson. The infor-

mational variety lends itself well to practice in silent reading, while the inspirational reading of literature gives the best opportunity for expressive oral reading. The writer has found the use of poems of particular value in expressive reading. Such poems as "To a Waterfowl," "Hervé Riel," "Annabel Lee," "To a Skylark," "The Leap of Roushan Beg," "Lochinvar," etc., may be used to advantage in developing a love for literature and at the same time in furnishing the best kind of material for expressive oral reading. The pupil must be taught to appreciate the beauties and the inspirational value of literature. But let us not forget that he also needs to learn to read the bulletin on *How to Eradicate Weeds* so that he can apply the directions after he has read them. His sister also should be able to read directions on *How to Can Vegetables by the Cold-Pack Process* by herself, and then be able to proceed intelligently and successfully with the canning process.

Several years ago the writer had an interesting and useful experience in setting up an Edison rotary mimeograph. At the same time he attained greater respect for the ability to read and follow directions. The mimeograph was shipped to him "knocked down." In order to get some mimeographed sheets ready for his summer-school classes in school management, he must put the machine together and get it into good operating order, and this within a limited time. The directions were explicit. The next thing was to read them, and then to follow them. If a certain part was mentioned, he must be able to find it. It was a clear case of need for definite informational reading. Boys, in country schools especially, need to undertake just such definite practical reading tasks as that until they are able to understand exactly and to do the thing required.

VI. An inspiring poem. The informational reading will,

in considerable measure, take care of itself, providing the teacher furnishes the right reading material and then gives pupils a chance to tell what they have read, or to carry out directions, or to solve the problem. In presenting poems, however, the teacher is often at a loss to know how to proceed, and many of the older reading texts do not give the teacher adequate teaching suggestions. Let us suppose that the teacher desires eighth-grade children to make a simple study of "The Bugle Song," presented below, and that she particularly wishes to have the pupils appreciate something of the beauty of the pictures.

THE BUGLE SONG

The splendor falls on castle walls
And snowy summits, old in story;
The long light shakes across the lakes,
And the wild cataract leaps in glory.
Blow, bugle, blow, set the wild echoes flying:
Blow, bugle; answer, echoes, dying, dying, dying.

O hark, O hear! how thin and clear,
And thinner, clearer, farther going!
O sweet and far from cliff and scar
The horns of Elfland faintly blowing!
Blow, let us hear the purple glens replying:
Blow, bugle; answer, echoes, dying, dying, dying.

O love, they die in yon rich sky,
They faint on hill or field or river:
Our echoes roll from soul to soul,
And grow forever and forever.
Blow, bugle, blow, set the wild echoes flying:
And answer, echoes, answer, dying, dying, dying.

— From "The Princess" by Alfred, Lord Tennyson.

Now it would be a most profitable use of school time for the teacher to use most or all of the period for assigning the lesson, or rather, for getting pupils ready to use assignment questions. She will have in mind several distinct purposes, among them: (1) to give the setting; (2) to stimulate imagination; (3) to set certain thought problems; (4) to call attention to difficult parts; (5) to give illustrations herself of good vocal rendition; (6) to arouse genuine interest; (7) to prepare specifically for successful study.

The reader will find additional suggestions in the following chapter relative to the subject of poems and memorization. Teachers vary in their ways of teaching poems, and authors of textbooks also present varying procedures. The writer of this book believes that the chief aim of the teacher when first presenting a poem is to produce a right attitude towards it, which is one of some appreciation and of a desire to learn more. The first thing to do is for the teacher to read the poem aloud appreciatively, pausing now and then to call attention to certain striking or beautiful portions. This preliminary reading has for its main purpose the arousing of interest and the giving of enough facts so that the pupil will be prepared and eager the next day to use his assignment questions on the board or on carbon copies made by the teacher or some pupil. "The Bugle Song" and the accompanying questions are intended for an eighth-grade class, and are not altogether easy. It is not necessary or right in teaching such a poem to try to be exhaustive. It is better, rather, to arouse some appreciation in each child on his own level — which is of course the *only* level for him. The teacher must anticipate the pupil's difficulties and help him to overcome them. Memorization is the last step, and it may be of the entire poem, or preferably only one stanza. In any case, memorization should never be forced on any

pupil. It should be, to some extent, a by-product of thoughtful appreciation.

It needs only a brief suggestion to give place and time setting: Tennyson, the poet, was enjoying a beautiful sunset in the Killarney Lakes region. He heard the bugle blast of a boatman, which inspired him to write this poetic gem. Let us see what definite assignment questions and directions might be made for to-morrow. Remember that these are only suggestive, and that they are to be in the hands of the pupil at his seat when he is studying the poem. (1) What can you find out about the Killarney Lakes? (2) Be able to make several important statements concerning Alfred, Lord Tennyson. (3) Do you know any other poems that he wrote? (4) What do you see when you read the first stanza? (5) Can you hear the "wild echoes" and the "horns of Elfland"? Can you see the "rich sky" and the "purple glens"? (6) What is the main thought of the first stanza? Second? Third? (7) What is the lesson? (8) Learn a stanza by reading aloud several times from start to finish, striving to express images and thoughts rather than words. Try to image the word pictures. (9) What is a spiritual echo? How do "Our echoes roll from soul to soul"? Is "roll" a good word? (10) Name three qualities of this poem. Judge these: (*a*) beauty of imagery and language; (*b*) useful lesson; (*c*) imagination stimulated, thought aroused. Illustrate each of these points to-morrow by referring to passages.[1]

When the time comes for the pupils to use the assignment questions, they will know what to do, and when the recitation period arrives next day, it will not be dreaded by both teacher and pupils. The class exercise will not consist of

[1] This exercise was suggested by a similar one in the Elson Grammar School Reader, Book IV, published by Scott, Foresman and Company.

the mere routine monotonous calling of words, but instead teacher and children will be alert and responsive. Furthermore, character will be developed through such a reading exercise, and that is the leading purpose of our instruction.

VII. Significance of assignment. We know that, after all, the chief business of the teacher is to lay out profitable work for children to do and then to see to it that the work is done. Both of these duties are, of course, important, because children are sent to school to learn to work and to take pleasure in work well done. The good school has an emotional atmosphere of successful and cheerful accomplishment. In getting work done, the relation between setting the task and its accomplishment is a close and vital one. In assigning the lesson, the teacher should aim so to stimulate the child and so to clearly set a definite task that the pupil will desire to do the assigned work.

From this it is readily seen that time and energy spent in preparing the mind of the pupil for his study period are not time and energy wasted. This is particularly true in the rural school where the pupil is necessarily left largely to himself during his study time. A teacher should understand and appreciate the fact that when she is properly *assigning* the lesson she is really *teaching*. She is preparing the pupil to understand and to assimilate new subject matter. And much more than that; in this reading work she is developing power of appreciation and love for the true, the beautiful, and the good in literature and in life. It takes time to establish a real basis for appreciation. A good assignment cannot and must not be hurried.

VIII. Need for definiteness. Now let us note some assignments which will not only relieve the monotony of the recitation, but which will also be worth while educationally.

1. *Problem questions.* During the time of the assignment

the teacher and members of the class will find it useful, as the text of the lesson is read, to select certain problem questions for use during the coming study period. The teacher writes some of these on the board and pupils copy them then and there. The teacher suggests some of the questions, pupils suggest others. It is a coöperative exercise. Some questions are left for pupils to work out by themselves. While this work is going on it is evident that the members of the class are doing intensive silent reading — a kind of reading which should be emphasized because of its practical bearing upon the success of all the pupil's work in school and because of its relation to later success and happiness in adult life.

Suppose teacher and class are working on "Lochinvar." Such questions as the following are calculated to arouse interest and enthusiasm, resulting in closer examination of the text: What do you think of the misleading reply of Lochinvar in stanza four? In what frame of mind did Lochinvar come to Netherby Hall? What sort of a fellow do you think Lochinvar was? Why? How did Lochinvar put the father "off the track" in stanza four? What type of man was the bridegroom? Why do you think so? Mention lines that show Ellen's frame of mind. Did Ellen recognize Lochinvar's plan? If ten to fifteen such study questions are worked out, there will be no lack of interest the next day in discussing the answers. How different such an exercise is from the deadening process of mere word calling, a practice which is all too frequent in rural schools, and possibly in some other schools, as well.

2. *Selecting titles.* The pupils may be instructed and directed concerning the selection of suitable titles for stanzas or paragraphs. This can be made a vital, thought-provoking exercise if done through rather intense, thought-getting,

silent reading. It is impossible to make a selection of the right title without very painstaking and analytic reading. Such work cannot be well done if hurried, or undertaken in a thoughtless, mechanical fashion. Let us consider "John Gilpin's Ride" in this connection. There are over sixty stanzas; and pupils will become interested, even enthusiastic, in properly naming them. In this poem there is not only the naming of separate stanzas, but there is also the grouping of stanzas and the naming of the larger groups. John's character and standing are set forth in the first stanza. In the next three stanzas John's spouse is making a specific proposition concerning a holiday trip. In the fifth and sixth stanzas John gives ready acquiescence to the plans of his "dearest dear," and so on.

During the assignment period teacher and class, with books open, will read in part silently and in part aloud, and then, as the result of coöperative work, the teacher will set down some titles or names as acceptable. For example, it may be that they will agree to call the first stanza "John's Social Standing." The second might be named "No Holiday in Twenty Years," and the third "The Proposed Trip." These titles are merely illustrative. Start the pupils well and they will want to finish the task. If the teacher will hold herself and her pupils to careful thinking, then such work is helpful. During the study period the pupils will examine the text carefully, and effort will be made to decide the title from the thought content. This is a valuable language exercise, also; but it is not to be used with all selections. It cannot be too strongly urged upon teachers to use such assignments and devices as will result in the pupils' applying themselves vigorously to silent reading of sentences and larger units of thought, for the purpose of sifting out truth. Silent reading with

purpose back of it is what is needed in this upper-grade work.

3. *Listing significant topics.* The pupils may be instructed in finding certain things and directed to search out items and to make lists of them. They are told, for example, to bring a list of the main incidents of the story in order, numbered one, two, three, etc. A comparison of such lists in class will result in another close examination of the text. When teacher and class are going through the stanzas during the time of assignment, there will be an opportunity to train pupils in making selections of points and in naming such points. In "Annabel Lee" the following is a suggestive list: name — character — children together — angels covet — wind — effect of wind — where she went — why she died — love everlasting — influence still felt — effect of imagination. This poem is a difficult one because of the imagery used; pupils would need a good deal of preparatory instruction in order to make out a list similar to the preceding one. Such preparatory work will, of course, constitute a part of the assignment, and by skillful questioning and some explanation on the teacher's part the children will be able to use discrimination, to pass judgment, and to select the essential parts of the narrative or the descriptive account, whether presented in prose or poetry.

There are many other lists which pupils can be trained to make. For example, they can be shown how to select descriptive adjectives; and a variation of this is to consider the characters of the story, setting down the chief physical, mental, and moral qualities of each. You will think of "The Great Stone Face" as affording a fine opportunity for this exercise thus: Name five prominent qualities of Ernest, of "Old Stony Phiz," of "Old Blood and Thunder," etc. In the "Merchant of Venice," again, there is a rich field for

such analytical study. It must always be vital study, however, and furthermore, such lists should always be discussed in class and reasons given for making the selections. The point here is that the teacher can so assign the work as to make the selection of such words a very valuable thought-developing exercise during the study period. After pupils have been taught the meaning of certain figures of speech, such as the metaphor, a list of them can be made during the study lesson. If the figures are not thoroughly worked out in class, however, there is little good in merely attempting to list them. Pupils may also make lists of allusions — geographic, biographic, literary, historical, scientific, biblical, humorous, etc. In "Snow-Bound," for example, there is repeated opportunity for this kind of study.

4. *Individual selections.* A fourth kind of assignment may direct pupils to bring to class something especially good to read aloud. The selection should be brief, appeal to the pupil, and not be given unless it is rendered appreciatively. In making such an assignment as this the teacher will illustrate by reading with good expression some extracts or gems which she personally likes. These may have been found in readers, magazines, newspapers, or reference books of various kinds. It is very much in order to direct pupils quite frequently to do this kind of work. The trained teacher has in mind several purposes, among them: to stimulate pupils to read for their personal pleasure; to develop the habit of looking outside of the text; to arouse special interest in the inspirational values of literature; to give especial practice in oral reading with a distinct end in view.

5. *Word pictures.* The pupils are requested to describe their mental pictures. They are directed to study the pictures, to make a list of the parts, and to bring their own word pictures to class at the next exercise. For ex-

ample, recall the twelve lines from "Snow-Bound" beginning —

> "The moon above the eastern wood
> Shone at its full; the hill range stood" — etc.

In these lines a definite scene is beautifully described. Pupils should be shown how to analyze the scene and to paint the picture in suitable words, during the recitation period. Assign such word pictures for definite study.

6. *Sketches and diagrams.* Pupils may be sent to maps and required to make certain sketches. For example, in studying "Hervé Riel" pupils may be directed to draw a simple diagram representing a river and a bay. The twenty-three French ships can be diagrammed — "a crowd of frightened porpoises." Damfreville's *Formidable* should be emphasized as leading the twenty-two others. Show also the English fleet in pursuit. Represent St. Malo on an island. Locate Greve and Solidor. This is excellent work for the study period, but it must not be attempted until the teacher has led up to it by suitable and adequate assignment. The teacher, herself, must do some suggestive sketching in the class while she and the children are talking it over. Such work arouses interest and leads to more successful study of the text.

7. *Timed, individual readings.* The pupils may be asked to read certain library books, to time themselves, and to report on the length of time taken to read designated pages or chapters. Or they may estimate the number of words read in twenty minutes. The teacher must not forget that the best readers, as a rule, are the most rapid readers. In our teaching of upper-grade reading, and particularly in our assignment of reading tasks, we must make sure that pupils

are stimulated in all legitimate ways to read as rapidly as possible, so long as they are getting the main run of the thought.

8. *Written interpretation and transposition.* Another good assignment is to require pupils to write in their own language the gist of the thought of a certain previously designated stanza or paragraph. Remember here that quality should be stressed rather than quantity. It is important that children be trained to leave out no important particulars, and, moreover, to put the thought in their own words, no matter how crudely done. Initiative and originality should be encouraged in all possible ways. Poetry lends itself with special usefulness to an exercise of this variety. There is the possibility, however, in work of this kind, that it will be done in a careless, formal, mechanical manner.

9. *Intensive studies.* Certain stanzas or paragraphs are assigned for pupils to prepare to read aloud as well as they can possibly do it. Practice outside of class time should be directed by the teacher. If a proper development or preparatory exercise or an assignment exercise has taken place beforehand, then the pupil will have certain standards of judging his own practice, so that he can work intelligently and with a distinct end in view. In oral reading teachers have often attempted more than they can do well. It is quality that counts here, not quantity. That is to say, if the expressive reading exercise is to be valuable, the assignment of subject matter should be small. In all this reading work we should discriminate carefully between intensive and extensive exercises and readings.

10. *Meanings of words.* Now in conclusion, let pupils be instructed with the utmost care in using certain words in sentences. Formal dictionary work is rather hazardous. What is here advocated is a preliminary discussion of a few

selected words, say a half dozen. Then when the pupils get some adequate notion of the special meanings as found in the particular selection, they are ready to compose sensible sentences or explanatory statements which are backed up by thought and which show some originality on the part of the child. For example, the following words and phrases from "Rip Van Winkle" cannot be used by the pupil in sentences until a carefully conducted *teaching assignment* exercise has preceded during which the particular thought has been developed in the minds of pupils. The reader will recall these words and phrases: "self-important man"; "vacant stupidity"; "well-oiled disposition"; "torrent of household eloquence"; "gaping windows"; "transient"; "austere"; "magical hues"; "domestic adherent"; "precipitation"; "alacrity." To assign such a list with the direction to use them in sentences before pupils have been prepared would be to get results that would be often ridiculous, but also serious from an educational point of view.

Word study must always be specific and particular, not general, and accompanied by adequate illustrative discussion. It takes long training before pupils can be trusted to get out of the dictionary the specific items they are supposed to get. Pupils should write explanatory, illustrative paragraphs discussing words or phrases. Two or three well done are much better than a dozen mechanically composed sentences.

IX. Country children are poor in reading.[1] Recent investigations, school surveys, and measurement of teaching results by standardized tests in rural schools show that rural children are on the average below grade in reading ability. Among the causes of this condition are the following:

[1] This analysis is taken from *Rural School Leaflet No. 35*, December, 1924, entitled "Improvement in Teaching Reading in Rural Schools," by Maud C. Newbury, published by the Federal Bureau of Education.

1. Overemphasis upon oral reading.
2. Emphasis placed upon word getting instead of thought getting.
3. Failure to lead children to form the habit of scanning phrases.
4. Neglect of phonics.
5. Use of only one reading text during the year.
6. Children's lack of interest in the material read.
7. Difficulty of reading texts.
8. Neglect of silent reading.
9. Lack of motivation.
10. Lack of appreciation, on the part of children and teacher, of standards of just what a given grade should accomplish in reading.
11. Failure to assign such seat work as will reënforce class work in reading.

ASSIGNMENTS

Just as soon as children show a measure of independence in getting through for themselves let a study period precede the class period in reading. Prepare definite assignments and write them on the blackboard as a guide to children in studying the selection assigned. The teaching of reading should have, as one of its aims, improvement in study habits.

The following principles should prove helpful as guides in making assignments, not only in reading, but in all content subjects depending upon skill in reading for their mastery:

1. Select, or lead the children to select, material closely related to their interests and abilities.
2. Lead children to read with definite purposes in mind.
3. Make such purposes the children's. Ask questions such as: "What selection, topic, or problem shall we study next?" "What questions do you wish to raise in connection with it?"
4. Emphasize the use of knowledge and whenever possible the giving of pleasure to others through such use.
5. Ask some questions that will test children's ability to

reproduce facts. Ask others that will emphasize the use of judgment or reflective thinking; also those that will lead children to study the organization of stories.

6. Encourage children to bring to the class questions that they want to ask other children. Train them in understanding what constitutes a good question. Let them select a pupil chairman to conduct the discussion of the selection studied. Permit them to ask their own questions first. Then the chairman may ask the questions that the teacher has assigned. Let the majority of the class decide which selection they want to study next. Encourage pupil initiative.

7. Endeavor to get a response from every child. Let the assignment show a recognition of individual differences in children.

8. Drill on the rapid recognition of difficult words in phrases or in their natural setting. Use games to make drill interesting. Provide separate periods for short phonic drills in primary grades — after the second month in the first grade.

9. Let a silent reading period, discussion of the thought, and drill on difficulties precede oral reading other than sight reading of very easy new material. Emphasize oral reading of parts of the story or selection for purposes of appreciation.

X. Concluding summary.

1. Keep in mind that properly assigning the reading lesson is a real teaching exercise. To assign adequately is much more than to give directions. Correct assignment means mental preparation.

2. The chief purpose in assigning the upper-grade reading lesson in a country school is to prepare the members of the class for profitable and independent study.

3. Time spent upon a carefully worked-out assignment is an investment and not an expense. Credit it to pupil development and do not debit it as loss of time.

4. A country teacher does not have much time to supervise the study activities of upper-grade pupils, and she should

therefore reduce the need for such supervision by careful teaching assignments.

5. Do not forget that every normal child is curious to know and likes to solve problems. See to it that he has problems in his reading as well as in his arithmetic.

6. Boys and girls should be so trained in reading that they will desire to read when they grow up. Therefore, so assign the reading lesson as to send pupils to reference books. Develop the habit of research, of finding desired facts in books. Individual assignments will aid in developing such a habit.

7. Silent reading is more important than oral reading. Consequently the assignment and the reading exercise itself should be of a character that will encourage as much critical silent reading as possible.

8. Country boys and girls should be trained to some extent in that special kind of reading which they will need as farmers and farmers' wives, although many of them may spend their lives elsewhere than on farms.

9. If the recitation does not go forward successfully, the teacher may as well stop, quit testing, and go to teaching. In other words, she should have a study recitation, which is really only another name for what often borders very closely on an assignment exercise. Too many teachers try to drill and test when they ought to be teaching.

10. The country teacher should recognize the fact that if upper-grade reading is done poorly in a country school, all other upper-grade work of the school will suffer as a natural consequence. The pupil who can read silently with rapidity and understanding has a distinct advantage over others who cannot.

In this discussion of reading assignments, the eighth-grade class has been kept in mind particularly, but the assignment

of silent-reading study tasks in any grade is a problem that is worthy of most careful consideration, especially by country teachers. The rural teacher who gives adequate attention to inter-recitation activities is the teacher who is teaching a good school, other things being equal. It is now possible for a teacher to purchase commercial materials for reading seat work of all grades, which will enable her to solve this problem satisfactorily. Some of the more recent sets of silent readers give clear and definite directions to pupils, thus saving the teacher's time for other work. It should not be necessary for the teacher to make out questions and directions for all of the selections she teaches. Instead of that she should find ready-made helps which have been prepared by experts. Any teacher who is careful to make use of definite and stimulating assignments in her teaching of reading will soon find that pupils are gaining in power, that the question of order is no longer so serious, and that the work in other subjects is showing increasingly better results.

Useful Supplementary Readings

1. Anderson, C. J., and Davidson, Isobel — *Reading Objectives*; Laurel Book Company. 1925.

2. Book, W. F. — *Learning How to Study and Work Effectively;* Ginn and Company. 1926.

3. Gates, A. T. — *The Improvement of Reading;* The Macmillan Company. 1927.

4. Gray, W. S. — "Difficulties in Silent Reading"; *Twentieth Year Book*, Part II; Public School Publishing Company. 1921.

5. Lyman, R. L. — *The Mind at Work;* Scott, Foresman and Company. 1924.

6. McMurry, F. M. — *How to Study and Teaching How to Study;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1909.

7. National Society for the Study of Education —

Twenty-fourth Year Book, Part I; Public School Publishing Company. 1925.

8. Stormzand, M. J. — *Progressive Methods of Teaching;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1924.

9. Strayer, G. D., and Norsworthy, Naomi — *How to Teach;* The Macmillan Company. 1917.

10. Yoakam, G. A. — *Reading and Study;* The Macmillan Company. 1928.

CHAPTER XI

LANGUAGE: ORAL AND WRITTEN

The best teachers in all classes of schools are those who try to get at the fundamental reasons for their procedures. If a teacher knows what she is trying to accomplish, it is not difficult or at all unusual for her to find her own way of securing results. The most important matter is to understand the objectives.

I. Expression of ideas. In his social relations man finds it necessary and desirable to communicate his ideas to his fellows. Our entire social organism is maintained through the power of human beings to pass on their thoughts and emotions by means of oral and written language. The rural teacher should probably devote the major portion of her time to the work in English, which includes reading, language, and word study. Practically every exercise of the school involves language training of some sort. Most rural teachers are relatively weak in language power themselves; the purpose of this chapter is to stimulate increased interest in this important subject.

II. Significant aims. In order to accomplish the desired results in language work, the rural teacher should be conscious of the goals and should then work steadily to realize them. Among the general aims of all training in expression the following stand out prominently:

1. To help the child to form the *habit* of using the English language *correctly*.

2. To help the child to cultivate *skill* in both oral and written expression of thought.

3. To suggest to the child a rich *content* of percepts, images, and general notions as the essential basis of worthwhile expression.

4. To so *motivate* the child's efforts at language expression through his natural interests that speech and writing will be enjoyed.

5. To emphasize the *social* needs and values of expression.

III. Basic principles.

1. The art of language can be acquired only by continued practice in the expression of one's knowledge under the guidance and stimulation of clear and correct ideals. There are three essentials: (*a*) thoughts and feelings to express; (*b*) adequate occasion or need for expression; (*c*) persistent but kindly criticism and correction.

2. William James stated that there should be "no reception without reaction, no impression without correlative expression." He said further that "this is the one great principle which the teacher ought never to forget." Six common sources of impressions are (*a*) the child's own experiences; (*b*) his natural interest in other people and in things; (*c*) suitable stories; (*d*) high-grade pictures; (*e*) poems of established worth; (*f*) mistakes of the pupils in speaking and writing.

3. No permanently valuable results will be secured unless there is persistent, systematic effort in all the work of the school to stimulate thought and to fix good habits of expression.

4. Imitation, both conscious and unconscious, combined with directed observation, has especial force in all language training. Children tend naturally and unconsciously to copy what they see and hear. The teacher should, therefore, furnish good models or ideals. She should be especially critical of her own speech and of all blackboard work.

5. Language has two main functions: it is a means (1) of thinking; and (2) of the expression of thought. These implications naturally follow: (*a*) Make much of word study; (*b*) strive always for a rich thought content as the essential basis for all adequate expression; (*c*) utilize the child's personal experience; (*d*) see to it that expression grows out of and naturally follows impression; (*e*) encourage and stimulate in all legitimate ways the free, spontaneous, natural expression of each child. The genuine desire to express some personal interest, need, or problem from his own life and experience constitutes the prime motive through which the child will grow and develop in language ability.

IV. Need for motivation. Both ideas and feelings serve as motives. We are all stimulated to action through a realization of our personal needs and problems. Such realization involves thinking, and this means an adequate stock of images. Such images are the result of personal experience; they are formed in no other way. It is the teacher's business constantly to use and appeal to the child's experience as the necessary basis of an inherent, effective interest. The teacher must (*a*) lay out the work in suitable tasks, and then (*b*) supply adequate motives, *i.e.*, stimulate natural interests to insure that the work is done. No true teacher is a taskmaster, a mere driver; rather does she set up worthwhile objectives that appeal to her children as highly and personally desirable of accomplishment.

Motives determine action or conduct. A large part of our response to environment consists of speech and written language. Motives stimulate the expression of the true self. Power in use of the mother tongue can come only through naturally motivated activity. Artificial stimulation is barren of fruitful results, and, moreover, such incentives and exercises produce a deadly monotony in school work which

robs it of that joy and life to which both teacher and pupil are entitled. If language work is merely drudgery and is not enjoyed, the teacher should analyze the situation to discover what sort of motivation she is using.

Among the many means or agencies of natural motivation the following have repeatedly proven their efficacy: the teacher's personal example, a well-conducted school society, the making of useful and educationally valuable booklets, keeping a diary, publishing a school paper, language expression in and through the home where a real need may exist, the preparation and carrying out of public programs, posting the work of children on bulletin board, writing real letters to which answers are obtained (*i.e.*, genuine correspondence), the introduction of friendly rivalry or emulation in classes, wise use of a joke hour or period, reporting on trips or other experiences, telling humorous anecdotes, writing verses, producing a play, dramatization and impersonation, reporting on articles read.

V. Basis for interest. According to Charters, people old and young give heed to what is said or written (*a*) when *they* are genuinely and personally interested, (*b*) imitatively, when the audience or other readers are interested, and (*c*) when real information is given. How often it happens that teachers fail to observe one or more of these requirements. Pupils are assigned language tasks for which they can see no reason, and then when the recitation period arrives, there is a dreary rehearsal of words in which nobody is interested. The content of the exercises often consists not of real information, but rather of material which is either outside of the child's own life or nothing more than mechanical word forms.

VI. Language and thought. We think in words whether we realize it or not. Words are the skins of ideas, and

" ideas are born with their skins on," as one writer expresses it. If we really know anything, we can tell it, for knowledge implies words. If we cannot tell, more attention should be given to the thought content. Too often we try to tell something without a sufficient basis of analytical thought about it. Language is a tool of and for thinking, and a limited vocabulary simply means, in part at least, inadequacy of ideas and thought. There is danger (*a*) that the teacher will not understand and appreciate the real nature of language, (*b*) that pupils will be satisfied with words rather than ideas, and (*c*) that words will take the place of ideas for both teacher and pupils in reading, geography, arithmetic, and all other subjects of the school.

The reader should consult, in this connection, Salisbury's *Theory of Teaching*, Chapter XXIV, and Dewey's *How We Think*, Chapter XIII.

VII. Correction of errors. Every successful teacher is a critic in the highest and best sense of the word. Helpful criticism is a tool in teaching, but in order to be a useful tool the criticism must be constructive and the critic must manifest the spirit of sympathetic helpfulness. Persistency and consistency are both needed, and this implies standards which can be found only through study. Manifestly, the art of criticism needs daily cultivation, for it is the indispensable means by which both teacher and pupils will rise to higher levels.

In the correction of oral errors the teacher should do her work quietly and incidentally, not obtrusively or offensively. Keep a list of individual errors for each child as well as a list of typical errors for the whole class. It is entirely possible to use games in order to secure proper and adequate repetition. Such games appear in many periodicals, books, and manuals. The teacher should make needful and definite

corrections in all classes, not merely the language class. Every effort should be made to eliminate carelessness and slovenliness in speech, for it is only by persistent care and attention that a new good habit can be fixed in place of the old bad habit. Some corrections should be made at the time the error occurs, but others may best be deferred to a more opportune time.

Require each pupil to correct his own written errors so far as possible. Many teachers waste a great deal of their time and energy in doing things which can be done far better by the children themselves. If the child corrects his own mistakes, it is much more likely to make an impression and thus to result in his forming the correct habit. In general, the practice of criticism by and for the whole class with, say, a paragraph on the blackboard is very effective. Good teaching comes to a helpful focus in such corrections, and the entire class is benefited. Moreover, such a procedure is a saving of the teacher's time.

The child's composition, whether a couple of sentences or a good-sized paragraph, should frequently be placed upon the board for class criticism and correction. It is wise, perhaps once a week, to use the entire period for individual criticism and help, as pupils write at their desks. In the rewriting of corrected work the teacher should watch for merely mechanical, perfunctory correction of errors. Remember that thoughtful, attentive repetition is the kind that makes for increase of power and skill. It should not be necessary to say that the teacher is greatly in error if she even attempts to criticize everything. Such a practice is very likely to discourage the child in his efforts to write his best.

Correction, alone, is inadequate and futile. It is probably true that over one-half of all the teacher's formal corrections are just waste of energy. It cannot be reiterated too often

that the aim should be *attentive pupil repetition* of the correct forms. If the teacher cannot develop in the pupil a sensitive and active conscience in matters of language form, there is probably something wrong with her motivation. The drills used are often highly artificial, uninteresting, and therefore unavailing. Such drills do not secure results because of their dreadful monotony. In the past many teachers, both in the grades and in the high school, have marked the written papers with a large assortment of red ink hieroglyphics, and too often these have not raised the level of accomplishment very materially. Teachers should realize that only effective correction secures results. And by results is meant change of skills and habits. The pupil's change for the better is the *acid test.*

In *Oral and Written English* by Potter, Jeschke, and Gillet there is an effective procedure for a class correction exercise. It is here given in summarized form:

1. Have the pupils neatly copy their stories or compositions on the blackboard.
2. Take up and consider one criticism at a time.
3. Have a pupil read his story or composition, making suitable pauses for corrections from time to time.
4. Arrange for the class to answer the following questions about each story: What do you like particularly? Could it be improved? Does each sentence begin with a capital and end with a period or a question mark? Are there any mistakes in spelling? Are there any other mistakes? How many paragraphs are there? Is the paragraphing well done or not? What suggestions have you for improvement?

VIII. Problem of increasing the vocabulary. Word study is one of the most profitable kinds of study in which teacher and pupils can engage. The following suggestions are given with a view to improving the vocabulary work. If the

teacher will study these, and then make an effort to carry them out in her own school, both she and her children will be benefited. Some of these suggestions in different form are found in Klapper's *Teaching of English.*

1. The common sources of new words are the following: (*a*) poems; (*b*) discussion of pictures; (*c*) stories; (*d*) discussions preparatory for oral compositions, original themes, and letters; (*e*) reading, geography, history, and other subjects.

2. Words are a part of thinking and not merely of talking and writing. We think in words. Teachers should usually not accept the excuse: "I know, but I cannot tell it." When we really know, we generally have the words as a part of our knowing process.

3. Set aside definite times for word study. In one school the subject matter of the word-study class comprises orthoëpy, spelling, and word analysis, and a definite time is set apart on the program for them. However, a great deal of word study is incidental. Nearly every recitation affords an opportunity to study words.

4. Show that an inadequate vocabulary is a great handicap in life. Persons who have a choice and varied stock of words whose meaning they know and which they can use wisely are in positions of advantage both socially and in business life.

5. The teacher should consciously and deliberately make a study of the vocabulary problem — a little each day. It will pay well to place time and effort persistently upon this aim of increasing the child's vocabulary.

6. Make a special study of such apt combinations as the following. Note their particular fitness and force. Teacher and children should make and keep lists of such phrases as: conspicuous examples; quite superfluous; inadequate treatment; boon companions; petty malice; irritating trifles; new-fangled notions; loose thinking; wholly unauthorized; notoriously unreliable; woefully mistaken. See Putnam's *Handbook of Expression.*

7. Synonyms are worthy of much attention. Use the dictionary regularly. The teacher's own personally conducted class use of the dictionary will be the most profitable. The teacher should aim to cultivate a feeling for words. Word study through use of the dictionary needs usually to be carefully directed.

8. Discourage indiscriminate use of words, such as *splendid, nice, awful, lovely, fine, good,* and similar words that tend to become trite in common usage and to develop personal language mannerisms.

9. Word games stimulate curiosity and lead to close observation and accurate thinking. The teacher will find some useful suggestions in a little book put out by the G. and C. Merriam Company, entitled *What Fun to Play Merriam-Dictionary Games!* This booklet may be had for the asking. The address is Springfield, Massachusetts. Ask for enough copies to supply your upper-grade classes.

10. A "meaning and use" list in which changes are constantly being made is helpful. Be careful not to place all new words in that list, however. Make it a select list.

11. Often a teacher should give the particular meaning of a word directly when it is needed and then go on with the lesson without loss of time. Looking up all words in the dictionary is an unjustifiable mechanical practice, usually lacking in educative value.

12. Teachers should bear in mind that there are several different ways of getting the meaning of a word. Among these are the following: (*a*) direct telling by teacher; (*b*) use of objects; (*c*) judging from content; (*d*) acting out the meaning — "He stood with arms akimbo"; (*e*) using dictionary (hazardous, needs supervision); (*f*) simple word analysis. Teach prefixes, suffixes, roots.

13. Many definitions are worse than useless. Stress *function*, not mere *definition*. Can the child use the word in a good sensible sentence? That is the vital question. Is this sentence worth anything: "The man was obstreperous"? Is it not a supposedly illustrative sentence that does not illustrate?

14. The teacher should, herself, in her own conversation and instruction, use words she wishes the children to use.

15. Encourage pupils to use new words in their oral and written language work.

16. It is well to realize that none of us have really *mastered* any word in our speaking or writing vocabularies until it is used unconsciously and automatically.

17. Words are worse than useless unless they stand for ideas — our own personal ideas, of course, not some other person's ideas.

18. The spirit of curiosity concerning words should be cultivated — a sensitiveness as to accurate and happy use of words.

19. A new word is lost unless it is put into action — made to do its real work in the pleasure and business of life.

20. Many people, old and young, do much to increase their vocabularies by closely noting new words in the speech of others. The place of imitation in this work, whether conscious or unconscious, is of significance. The teacher should, of course, strive to become the imitable person in all language training.

IX. Stimulating power of pictures.

1. *Aims:* (*a*) to develop artistic taste; (*b*) to suggest new thoughts and feelings; (*c*) to give opportunity for expression; (*d*) to develop ideas through the use of imagination.

2. *Where to get pictures:* from (*a*) the companies that publish pictures for schools; (*b*) newspapers and magazines; (*c*) calendars and catalogues; (*d*) railway advertising materials; (*e*) textbooks; (*f*) reference books. This is not an exhaustive list of sources.

3. *Making a selection:* (*a*) Get large pictures usually; (*b*) pictures should present few objects; (*c*) children delight in color; (*d*) procure life and motion, if possible; (*e*) pictures should suggest good thoughts and worthy ideals.

4. *Some suggestions on teaching:*

(*a*) Teacher's preparation —

(1) She must have an aim.

(2) She must study the picture.
(3) She must plan questions — clear, definite, direct, suggestive questions.
(4) She must know the picture story.

(*b*) Teacher's presentation —
(1) Let pupils study the picture silently.
(2) By questioning, lead pupils to observe, to think, to imagine, to express.
(3) Do not let pupils ramble.
(4) Do not repeat pupils' answers.
(5) Avoid set form of questions.

X. Poems and memorization. In teaching poems, it is well for the teacher to keep in mind several guiding objectives, among which are the following: (1) to develop a love for the good, the true, and the beautiful in literature; (2) to store the mind with standard poetic gems; (3) to cultivate tastes that make for constant and lifelong enjoyment; (4) to furnish thought and feeling material for oral and written expression; (5) to increase the vocabulary.

In preparing to teach a poem the teacher should read for understanding, for appreciation, and aloud for expression. In presenting the poem to the class the teacher should strive above all things to develop the right pupil attitude. This can be done only by giving such needed information as will enable the child to form the necessary background of concrete images. These images should be related to the child's own personal experience, if they are to be made significant. In arousing this initial interest and appreciation, a few facts pertaining to the life of the author are often useful. In reading the poem aloud to the children, a clear, well-modulated voice is a distinct asset. The teacher should read so well that pupils will listen and follow with attention, forming the images stanza by stanza.

Two kinds of lessons are needed: the *study* lesson and the *recitation* lesson. In the study lesson the teacher works with the pupils, her chief objective being to build up the mental pictures which the words suggest. This is real teaching and takes time. It cannot be hurried. As a result of the teacher's studying with the children, they gradually learn to study by themselves. The value of the recitation lesson will be determined by the character of the study lesson. This recitation procedure is not merely a testing exercise. The teacher may wish to know if the pupil can repeat the words of the poem, but there is a much higher objective than that. The teacher should test incidentally for memory results; but test questions which will arouse and cultivate tastes, attitudes, and appreciations should be frequent. Such questions are not always easy to frame, however.

Memorization exercises should often be carried on under the teacher's direction and with her assistance. The repetition of a large related unit, or literary whole, is much more effective than the learning of stanzas or parts. The teacher should strive constantly for a sympathetic understanding of the entire selection. To this end attention must be called to the ideas in their relations. This surely means imaging and real thinking. If the mind of the child can dwell repeatedly upon the thoughts and feelings involved, the memorization will, in part at least, take care of itself as a by-product of the thinking. Genuine interest is worth vastly more than rote learning without interest. In order to maintain this interest the teacher must often instruct and direct in a study recitation. The teacher should constantly see to it that understanding and appreciation precede and accompany memorization. Many rural teachers are not *teaching* poems any more than they are teaching spelling.

Reciting literary selections or poems from memory, in the common sing-song fashion, without thought or appreciation, is worse than time wasted, for such a practice develops an indifferent frame of mind. All the members of the class should unite in a social recitation in which each makes a contribution. There must be a real audience situation, and in making comments, fairness and courtesy demand that many favorable criticisms shall be made. Mere faultfinding should never be allowed. Whenever it is possible to do so, children should be encouraged to dramatize and impersonate the various characters, human and otherwise. It is important to remember that the child needs a real motive in order to do his best. The correct order of words is not the only or even the main standard for judging success. A child is entitled to credit for reciting one stanza with genuine appreciation. The teacher should read Chapter XII, "Memory Gems: Memorization and Recitation," in Klapper's *Teaching of English*, which suggested in part this discussion.

XI. Reproduction of stories.

1. *Objectives:* (*a*) to develop materials for thought and feeling; (*b*) to give opportunity for expression.

2. *Some sources of material for stories:* (*a*) fables, folklore, fairy tales; (*b*) history stories; (*c*) mythology, biography, literature.

3. *Every good story must have:* (*a*) a beginning that arouses interest; (*b*) an orderly succession of events; (*c*) a climax or significant point; (*d*) an ending that leaves the mind satisfied.

4. *Other essential qualities in a story of value:* (*a*) meaning; (*b*) unity; (*c*) action.

5. *Some things to remember:* (*a*) Use direct discourse; (*b*) introduce rhythmical repetition; (*c*) put some dialogue

into verse; (*d*) use simple English; (*e*) present the story concretely; (*f*) make the story brief.

6. *Learning to tell a story:* (*a*) Determine its purpose; (*b*) analyze the story into parts; (*c*) study to really know it; (*d*) single out its essential features; (*e*) practice telling the story.

7. *Telling the story:*

A. Points for the teacher: (1) Seat all children within view; (2) every child is to look at the teacher; (3) don't begin until all are quiet; (4) look at all the children while talking; (5) don't allow interruptions; (6) tell the story simply, naturally; (7) do not be too dramatic; (8) do not talk too rapidly; pause after important facts; give each child time to form pictures; (9) speak sympathetically.

B. Points for the pupil: (1) Know your story well from beginning to end, so that you can tell it without hesitation; (2) avoid many details; that is, tell only those things that are needed to understand what is to follow; (3) tell of things in the order in which they happened, and do not run off into side paths; (4) the best part of a well-told story comes very near the end. In a humorous story the best part should be the last sentence. See *Work and Play with Language* — Robbins and Row.[1]

8. *Reproducing the story:* (*a*) of prime importance; (*b*) expression to follow impression; (*c*) several repetitions may be necessary; (*d*) ask how the story began; (*e*) begin the story and have the children finish it; (*f*) correct errors with discretion; (*g*) do not interrupt for corrections.

9. *Some general considerations:* (*a*) Direct the children not to use *and* too much; (*b*) require a proper position of body; (*c*) watch the tone of voice; (*d*) make use of outlines;

[1] The author acknowledges his indebtedness to Row, Peterson and Company, publishers.

(*e*) make much of biography and history stories; (*f*) teach a *few* stories thoroughly; (*g*) make story work a pleasure; (*h*) keep a record of stories used; (*i*) dramatize frequently.

XII. Suggestions for language work, in general.

1. Strive for quality rather than quantity. Have no long compositions.

2. In correcting written work, stress only a few errors at any time. Require pupils carefully to rewrite wrong sentences.

3. Writing sentences and brief paragraphs on the board is a most useful means of calling attention to errors. Pupils should do this work frequently.

4. Oral work is much more important than written, and thus oral practice should predominate. Pupils learn to talk by talking under kindly, judicious criticism.

5. Every exercise in school may be made an exercise in English, to some extent at least.

6. Some teachers have the bad habit of simply finding fault. True criticism is a fine art which requires daily cultivation.

7. Many of the corrected paragraphs should be read to the class or to the entire school.

8. The chief difficulty in having pupils use the dictionary is that the word they are looking up is often defined in other words that are just as unfamiliar and as hard to understand. Supervised dictionary study is best. Study dictionary definitions in the light of the context in which the word to be defined is used.

9. Persistent daily attention must be given to pronunciation, spelling, and punctuation. Pupils should become conscious of errors, and consciously repeat the correct form. This is the only means for developing needful skills.

10. Responses in complete statements, while usually

desirable, are sometimes ridiculously unnecessary. The teacher must judge of the need. A great deal depends on the kind of question used to call out the statement.

11. A teacher should have on her desk several copies of the newer and better language texts besides the one in use. There are now many high-grade language books.

12. The object of dictation exercises is to make pupils familiar with the written forms and skillful in their use. It is the continued use of capitals, abbreviations, punctuation marks, quotation marks, and other written forms that ultimately causes pupils really to know them and to become skillful in their use.

13. Make much of letter writing. It is a fruitful source of language material and it is a motivating exercise, also, if made genuine. See that real letters are written and sent.

14. Show pupils how to make neat and systematic outlines. There should be a good deal of this work in history, hygiene, geography, and other subjects.

15. Memory work should be thoughtful so that it is not meaningless and mechanical. Mental pictures and thought relations should receive much attention.

16. Riddles, conundrums, and the like have a legitimate place. For example: [1]

> As I went through the garden gap
> Whom should I meet but Dick Red Cap!
> A stick in his hand, and a stone in throat,
> If you'll tell me this riddle, I'll give you a groat.

17. Language exercises should be of a practical character. If parents and pupils see that language work bears upon the

[1] *Work and Play with Language* — Row, Peterson and Company, publishers.

activities of life, children will take more interest than otherwise.

18. Some oral language exercises: (*a*) talks on topics before the school and on public programs; (*b*) reports on newspaper and magazine articles, pamphlets, bulletins, books, etc.; (*c*) story telling in geography, history, and other subjects, as supplementary work — individual assignments are useful here; (*d*) accounts of actual trips and journeys; (*e*) free class discussion of problems and questions. In all of this work, whenever the individual pupil can tell something not known to the others, there will then be a well-motivated audience situation.

19. Some written language exercises: (*a*) articles and news items for local newspaper — have a school column; (*b*) letters by pupils asking for free material such as bulletins, circulars, and a variety of descriptive literature issued by railroads, manufacturing companies, etc. (Be sure not to abuse this privilege); (*c*) letters asking for information — pupils write to county clerk, county superintendent, state board of health, etc.; (*d*) a history of the district or the town — parents and teacher may assist in finding the facts; (*e*) a school paper; (*f*) correspondence with pupils in other counties, states, and countries; (*g*) letters to friends and relatives for which the teacher gives credit.

20. An eighth-grade graduate should have acquired the ability: (*a*) to talk clearly and effectively; (*b*) to give and to follow directions; (*c*) to write a good letter; (*d*) to use correct written forms; (*e*) to converse agreeably; (*f*) to repeat several poems; (*g*) to name twenty-five pictures and artists; (*h*) to use a dictionary, encyclopedia, glossary, index, and table of contents; (*i*) to use a library.

XIII. Do you know your grammar? Most of the exercises in this section are too difficult for average seventh- and

eighth-grade pupils in rural schools. However, they will prove useful for the teacher and for high-school students in the senior year of their course. Unquestionably teachers need to know the fundamentals of grammar if they are to pass judgment successfully upon the work of their pupils. These exercises will be found useful with students in training schools for teachers:

1. "He walked two miles." How is the word *miles* used?
2. Write the possessive plural of *boy, child, sheep, man, lady.*
3. "He who from zone to zone guides through the boundless sky thy certain flight, in the long way that I must tread alone, will lead my steps aright." State the main and dependent clauses. How is *flight* used? *Alone?* What kind of a clause is *that I must tread alone,* and what does it modify?
4. Analyze: "Under the spreading chestnut tree the village smithy stands."
5. Write the plurals of *lily, hero, tooth, pulley, alley, ally, Negro, piano, solo, potato, knife.*
6. "For your sake, John, I shall come again." How is *John* used? In what case? What is *again?* How is *for your sake* used?
7. How does a complex sentence differ from a compound sentence?
8. Compare constructions of *running* in these two sentences: "Running is good exercise." "The boy, running too fast, fell down."
9. "John struck the ball." Change to passive voice. What change in the case of *ball?* Of *John?*
10. "Shut the door." What mode? Name the subject.
11. Begin a letter and address an envelope to your county superintendent. To the publishers of *The Saturday Evening Post.*
12. Punctuate and capitalize: The newspaper asked will this committee dare destroy old ironsides.
13. "There is a tide in the affairs of men which, taken at the

flood, leads on to fortune." Name the subject. What is the construction of *on to fortune?* What kind of a word is *taken?*

14. List the following verbs as: (*a*) those that are always transitive, (*b*) those that are always intransitive, and (*c*) those that may be either: *give, get, abide, freeze, awake, carry, forsake, cling, beat, begin, find, drink, swim, bring, strike, steal, burn, swear, buy, put, let, knit, hit, cut, bleed, make, lose, loose, lay, have, lie, knell, hide, swing, chide, burst, take, set, be, appear, become.*

15. Give the reason for the case of each of the underlined words: "The task is easy." "O Death, where is thy sting? O Grave, where is thy victory?" "I told him the anecdote." "A cannon will shoot a long distance." "The pain made the boy wince." "The story being finished, he closed the book."

16. Fill each blank in the paragraph below with one of these words, and give reason: *he, she, him, her, I, me.*

She says that you and —— may go. It will make no difference to either you or ——. Who ate the oranges? It was ——. Will you let Mary and —— go home? May —— and —— read the letter? Look at Lucy and ——; we are running. If you will let George and —— sit together we will be quiet. —— that overcometh will I make a pillar in the temple.

17. "Who went home?" "He went home." How alike? Unlike? What is the use of *home?*

18. "The splendor falls on castle walls and snowy summits old in story." How is *summits* used? *old? in story?*

19. A verb must agree with its subject in —— and ——. Fill in and illustrate.

20. Punctuate and capitalize: *o george said tom i just saw two turtles a snake and a gray squirrel*

21. Give the person and case of *man* in: "Man, don't do that."

22. "There they found Basil, the blacksmith." How is *there* used? *blacksmith?*

23. "They ordered him to go." Compare the use of *ordered* and *go.*

24. "Lay the book on the table and let it lie there." Analyze, and compare uses of the two verbs *lay* and *lie.*

25. The governor gave Washington a letter. How is *Washington* used? *letter?* What is the case of each?

XIV. High lights in language work.[1] 1. The general purpose of work in language is ability to talk and to write with fair accuracy and facility within the range of the pupil's experiences.

2. Language is the tool by which thinking is carried forward.

3. The child's own experiences, to which have been added the experiences of others as found in books, constitute the chief content basis of work in language.

4. When any language activity is purposed, planned, executed, and judged by children themselves, such work is properly motivated.

5. A language text is desirable and necessary in middle and upper grades.

6. Definite objectives in terms of knowledge or informations, habits, skills, abilities, tastes, appreciations, and attitudes determine the results to be obtained in each grade.

7. Grade objectives are the *changes desired in children* which will be the result of the teaching of a particular subject or of a group of related subjects in a given grade.

8. Common sources for needful knowledge or information comprise stories; poems; pictures; individual experiences; subject matter in nature study, geography, history, etc.; games; dramatizations; letters.

9. Economical and effective personal language habits include healthful posture, a pleasant tone of voice, correct pronunciation and enunciation, power actively to listen, correct speech, and proper written form.

10. Objectives for various grades comprise the following:

[1] Suggested in part by Wisconsin elementary course of study.

(1) Secure free, spontaneous expression.
(2) Stimulate imagination.
(3) Develop appreciation of the common things of country life.
(4) Correct common errors.
(5) Develop ability to organize material.
(6) Increase the vocabulary.
(7) Develop taste for the best.
(8) Give elementary facts of language technique.
(9) Train the critical attitude.
(10) Develop the appreciation of proper organization, adequate vocabulary, and possession of definite knowledge.
(11) Secure skill in use of sentence and paragraph.
(12) Produce a desire to use language for communication, for preserving thoughts, for social service, for creative activity.
(13) Make sure of *sentence sense*.
(14) Develop skill in speaking before an audience.
(15) Develop power of effective arrangement of ideas.
(16) Fix the habit of neatness and good form in all written work.
(17) Develop increasing desire for the best in literature as a means of improving language ability.

Class Discussion Questions

1. Show that each of the means of motivation mentioned in the text may actually serve as useful ways of stimulating an interest.

2. Write out a two-hundred-word exercise on "Correction of Errors."

3. How do many teachers waste their time in the correction of written papers? What is the better way?

4. (*a*) Give a concrete illustration of the fact that an inadequate vocabulary may prove a serious handicap for a rural teacher. (*b*) What can a rural teacher do to increase her own personal vocabulary?

5. Add ten more to the list of apt and happy expressions.

6. Look up the following words in a dictionary, and then write a discussion of the shades of meaning: *naïve, frank, simple, ingenuous, candid, plain, sincere, unsophisticated.*

7. Show how such words as *splendid, nice, lovely, awful* are used incorrectly. Use them in proper connections.

8. Write to the G. and C. Merriam Company, Springfield, Massachusetts, and ask for samples of their free literature.

9. Why are many definitions worse than useless? How much do you think Johnny would make out of this: "The *hippopotamus* is a very large amphibious, herbivorous mammal"? What is the best way for a pupil to get a good idea of such a word? Look up this word in the dictionary.

10. Use *obstreperous* in a sentence so that the sentence itself will explain the meaning. You may need a complex or a compound sentence.

11. Name ten words that are in your reading vocabulary but not in your speaking vocabulary; name five that are in your speaking but not in your writing vocabulary.

12. Send 15¢ to the Perry Pictures Company, Malden, Massachusetts, and get their beautiful illustrated catalog.

13. Write to several railroad companies and ask them for some of their useful and attractive advertising literature.

14. Name five pictures which depict life and action — masterpieces by great artists.

15. Read up the subject in other texts, and then discuss the best way to study a poem and to commit poetry to memory.

16. Find several riddles and conundrums which may be useful in language work. Write five of each in your notebook.

17. Make a neat outline of this chapter, and prepare to talk connectedly for ten minutes.

Useful Supplementary Readings

1. Arnold, S. L. — *With Pen and Pencil;* Ginn and Company. 1906.

2. Barnes, W. — *English in the Country School;* Row, Peterson and Company. 1913.

3. Betts, G. H. — *Classroom Method and Management;* The Bobbs-Merrill Company. 1917.

4. Blake, K. D., and Alexander, G. — *Graded Poetry* (One book for each grade); Charles E. Merrill Company. 1905.

5. Bolenius, E. M. (1) *Elementary Lessons in Everyday English* (1920); *Everyday English Composition* (1917); *Advanced Lessons in Everyday English* (1921); American Book Company.

6. Bryce, C. T. — *Language Training in the Primary Grades;* Newson and Company. 1924.

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CHAPTER XII

CIVICS, LOCALIZED AND VITALIZED[1]

I. Need for Americanization. We have heard a great deal about the Americanization of foreign-born adults, and properly so, for it is hardly possible to overemphasize the urgent necessity of converting into good citizens our immigrant population. But we should also call attention to the striking fact that Americanization needs and opportunities for American boys and girls have been grossly neglected in many of our schools, in both town and country districts. Tens of thousands of native-born boys and girls in the grades need to be Americanized. If we paid more heed to the Americanizing of our school children there would be less need to Americanize the adult population. Here is a great but ill-cultivated field of rich possibilities.

It is of the greatest importance that boys and girls should gain before they leave school an understanding and appreciation of the fundamental ideals of our American form of government. They must sense, in some measure at least, the tremendous significance of free American citizenship. They should understand, in some degree, at least, the great privilege of a democratic form of government. They need to realize the true meaning of liberty and the large demand for intelligent patriotism. Before these boys and girls leave school they should become habituated as thoroughly as pos-

[1] Much of this chapter was prepared by the writer for two issues of the *Normal Instructor and Primary Plans.* The author hereby acknowledges his obligation to The F. A. Owen Company for permission to use the material.

sible to the idea of *living* certain civic virtues, such as loyalty, respect for law and order, recognition of personal and property rights, and belief in community betterment through community coöperation. Yet the time allowed the teacher is tragically short. Do you realize how necessary it is that "certain fundamental civic ideals be inculcated relatively early in the school course"? Do you realize that "more than three-fourths of those who enter the schools never go beyond the eighth grade and more than half do not go beyond the fifth grade"?

II. The new viewpoint. To-day we have different aims, different methods, and different textbooks in teaching civics from those that satisfied us twenty, or even ten, years ago. Our point of view has changed entirely. Now we lay emphasis upon good citizenship — intelligent, efficient, loyal citizenship — rather than upon a mechanical memorization of the text of the federal Constitution. It is now understood, furthermore, that the school itself furnishes rich opportunity for the exercise of civic virtues. Pupils are to learn how to be good citizens here and now, instead of speculating on what rights and obligations adult life will bring them.

The present-day understanding of the term *civics* implies and enforces the idea of practical citizenship, of dynamic coöperative activity, rather than adhering to the outworn notion that any great good is to be gained from familiarity with the intricacies of governmental machinery. Progressive teachers now realize that the vital point of departure is the civics that boys and girls know by actual experience — the civics of the home, the playground, the school, the school district, the town, the county. The method of an older day prescribed that the teacher should begin with the general, the abstract, the unknown, the so-called *logical* procedure of attending first to the federal government and coming down

and home by easy stages. In most cases, no doubt, the teacher, and therefore the pupils, never arrived at the most practical and useful of all civics, the study of local government. This procedure was possibly logical, but it was not psychological. It ignored the great principle that all good teaching proceeds from the known to its related unknown. The maxims, " Proceed from the concrete to the abstract," and " Teach from the simple to the complex," and from " the particular to the general," were not recognized as having practical application in the teaching of civics.

III. Significant objectives. In keeping with the spirit of this new viewpoint, the aims to be attained in teaching civics in elementary schools may be formulated thus:

General aim — To interest boys and girls in the principles and operations of government, local and general, to the end that they may become intelligent, self-active, coöperating, efficient, and law-abiding citizens.

Special aims — 1. To acquaint pupils with the workings of government within their own observation.

2. To stimulate a desire to know more about government.

3. To develop and make clear the great purpose of all government.

4. To create a willingness to take part in governmental activities, *i.e.*, to develop a spirit of practical civic and social service.

5. To develop some appreciation of the fact that the people themselves constitute the government.

6. To make it clearly understood that successful government depends absolutely upon individual integrity.

7. To train pupils in the use of books, reports, bulletins, newspapers, and other material bearing upon civics and citizenship, for the purpose of obtaining information as needed.

8. To develop a social consciousness in practice, as the prime condition of good citizenship, *i.e.*, to teach and train pupils to be good neighbors, to manifest the neighborly spirit.

9. To shape the life of the school so as to give repeated opportunity for developing the idea and the habit of conformity to social and civic standards as the cornerstone in the structure of good citizenship.

10. To show the true meaning of patriotism and to make it plain who the real patriot is, not only in the emergencies of war, but in times of peace as well.

11. To give pupils a chance to learn how to conduct a public meeting and how actively to participate in other ways by actually serving as chairman, secretary, treasurer, or as chairman of a committee having real work to do.

IV. Sixth-grade opportunities. The prime consideration in teaching civics is to secure a genuine interest and a correct attitude of mind. A good teacher of civics will be concerned as to the ideas, interests, and habits of the members of her class; for she will realize that the chief source of danger in our beloved America to-day is the lack in too many of our citizens of the qualities that make for intelligent and law-abiding citizenship. Especially has the teacher of the fifth and sixth grades a great opportunity to inculcate the basic ideals of American democracy. In these grades a good elementary text should be procured, and this text should be used partly as a supplementary civics reader. It should be used to some extent as the basis for topical reports, but also to furnish themes for live, conversational exercises and discussions of problems between teacher and children. In using a book of this character, one must avoid making it the basis of merely formal textbook recitation. The teacher must not forget that her great purpose is to inform, to inspire, to guide, to shape ideals, to fix habits, to mold opinion —

in short, to prepare for the good citizenship of the future by producing good citizens to-day.

V. Home civics the only basis. In geography teaching there is a well-recognized field that is termed *home geography*. Many teachers do not appreciate the pedagogical fact that this home geography is always particular, individual, and concrete; that there is really no such thing as general home geography. Home geography is the geography of a well-defined district. It is the geography of personal experience, of that part of the earth the child sees about his home. To teach it in the mountains of Colorado will naturally demand different equipment from that required of the teacher in Nebraska or Louisiana.

Now, corresponding to this home geography, which of course is always studied through direct observation, we have *home civics*, which may be studied by the same method. It is, of course, the government in the home, on the playground, in the school, and in the school district. Just as the facts of home geography, learned by direct experience, constitute the only basis for the images and concepts of general geography, so civics textbook discussions will have meaning only in so far as the child is able to interpret them in terms of his own personal observation and experimental knowledge of the civics of his own community or neighborhood.

No child can really understand the meaning of the word *committee*, for example, unless he has actually served on a committee. He will also have greater interest in and respect for the work of the town chairman, the chairman of the county board, and the presiding officers of state and national legislatures after he himself has learned how to act as chairman of a meeting by actually serving in that capacity. In all this beginning work in civics, the teacher should take pains to call up definite, concrete images. If the images are

the result of the pupil's experience, they are memory images. But if the state legislature or even the county board is under discussion, it will be necessary for pupils to use their imagination and for the teacher to help them to form correct images and ideas, so that the whole subject will have content and reality.

VI. Use of reference books. Correlate with this local civics work practical training in the use of reference books. Pupils will need to be shown how to use books, magazines, and newspapers to find material for debates or to secure other information. The habit of doing this skillfully should be fixed during the elementary-school years. Children should learn how to use tables of contents, indexes, guides to literature, and cyclopedias. Many a high-school pupil has to lean entirely on librarians for such knowledge. Every school library should have a copy of *Robert's Rules of Order*, the state *Blue Book* or *Red Book*, *The World Almanac*, *Proceedings of County Board*, and other books of like character. The teacher can often set problems, and pupils will be interested in solving them. To illustrate, in parliamentary procedure: How many amendments may there be to a motion? When the chairman puts the question to vote, in what order does he do this if the original question has been amended? Find the answers in *Robert's Rules of Order*.

In addition, there is not a rural school that can really afford to be without a good daily paper or a good weekly current-events journal, and both should be taken if possible. They will be valuable aids in correlating current events and civics, an undertaking that should receive as much time as can be spared for it each day and each week. In many rural schools current events now receive some attention every day in the week.

VII. Applying ideas of government. In order to incul-

cate right ideas and to fix right habits, spend much of the time devoted to civics in discussing fundamental ideas of government and their application to local units, such as the school, the school district, the town, and the county. The author believes that at least half the time available should be assigned to the subject of local government. This field should be emphasized more than it has been in the past. If a teacher will spend five or ten minutes a day upon such topics as those in the next paragraph, using the oral method of teaching, she will do much to arouse what will probably be a lifelong interest in problems of government. She will often have to state facts outright, but she will also be able by questioning to elicit information or at any rate to arouse curiosity. The pupils may take some of the questions home as subjects that will interest their parents or adult friends, who will perhaps be able to throw light on the children's difficulties. Here is a list of topics suggested in one state course:

Primary election — General election — County board meeting — Thanksgiving Day — Congress convenes — Payment of taxes — Legislature meets — Washington's birthday — Congress adjourns — Annual town meeting and spring election — Arbor Day — Memorial Day — Fourth of July — Circuit court sessions — Work of assessor — Health officer — Roads and bridges — Care of public property — Naturalization — Post office — The flag — Our country — Governments of other nations, and the qualities of their leaders.

In presenting such topics the teacher will do well to strike while the iron is hot. She must take advantage of interest at a given moment to discuss some event, date, or occasion. The time when the county board is in session is the time to discuss the functions of that body, and when some conta-

gious disease is prevalent or when sanitary conditions have been praised or condemned is the time to discuss the work of the health officer.

Taking the children to the county seat where they may visit the courthouse and other county buildings will be a valuable civics lesson. Such a visit is a red-letter day in the life of many a boy and girl. It may not be possible for all pupils to go even to the county seat, but many of them can attend the annual school meeting or a town meeting. Sometimes the teacher can take the pupils to a voting booth. Such direct observation is worth much, and the teacher should do what she can to promote it. Children become conscious of their citizenship and of the meaning of government only when it comes home in some way to their own lives and experiences. In conducting civic excursions, it will be a wise procedure for the teacher to acquaint herself with both persons and conditions in advance.

If the teacher can get acquainted with the county clerk, the treasurer, and other officers beforehand, and if she can be somewhat familiar with the facts which she wishes her children to know *before* the day of the trip, then the value of such concrete, practical experience for boys and girls will be greatly increased. Not infrequently teachers have made mistakes in not getting this preliminary preparation. A teacher should be alive and alert to what is going on in the affairs of local government. The pupils should, of course, know the names of the members of the school board and of the town board. They should know where the town hall is located, if there is one, and if there is no such building, where the town meetings are held; which member of the town board is a member of the county board and what his salary is; whether any member of the school board receives a salary and why. If pupils can be brought to think in

concrete images such as are here suggested, government will become a practical everyday affair to them and not a vague set of lofty principles with which they need not concern themselves till they are old enough to vote.

VIII. What subject matter? Betts, in his book *Classroom Method and Management*,[1] under the caption of "Elimination of Obsolete and Useless Material," believes that the following material has no place in a course in civics for the elementary school:

Detailed analysis of method of electing President
Detailed analysis of the court system and its procedure
Theoretical explanation of division of powers
Theory of bicameral legislatures
Technical details of how laws are made
All abstract political theory that has no direct bearing on good citizenship.
Names of unimportant state officers with terms, salaries, etc.

The author of this book believes, however, that it is legitimate for the teacher to call attention to the salaries of certain national, state, county, and town officers. Pupils should use their imaginations to grasp the situation. Many state superintendents of schools get $5,000 a year; so do many governors; one county probate judge receives $4,000, and the county superintendent $2,500. How do these salaries compare with other incomes you know about? Why are some salaries larger than others? How much does the President of the United States get? How much do you suppose he can save? Why should a justice of the Supreme Court get a larger salary than the governor of a state, etc.? A comparative, impersonal study of salaries may prove enlightening.

[1] Betts, G. H. — *Classroom Method and Management;* Bobbs-Merrill Company. 1917.

It should be recognized that a textbook on civics soon becomes out of date. You may find that it either omits certain facts or gives wrong ideas on some topics. Does any teacher, blindly following an old textbook, still teach that United States senators are elected by the state legislatures? Do all teachers know, also, of the XVIIIth Amendment, proposed by Congress in 1917 and ratified by the necessary number of state legislatures in 1919? What is this amendment about, and why is it that it has not been properly enforced in so many places? With what does the XIXth Amendment deal? The XVIIth? The XVIth? How are amendments proposed? How ratified? In using any textbook the teacher should be careful not to teach what once was true but is true no longer. Every skillful teacher of civics will read a good daily paper and at least one current-events weekly. She will be informed, and will not teach the worse than foolish things which the author has known some teachers to present as facts.

IX. Teaching suggestions. 1. Beware of formal recitations from the textbook. Use the method of discussion. Encourage pupils to ask questions. Use conversational method. Have pupils bring in problems. Utilize the problem idea and method.

2. Make collections of useful material. Have a large, strong manila envelope or a good cardboard box devoted to civics. In this accumulate election notices; ballots; lists of officers; clippings from county papers; notices of annual school meetings; proceedings of county board; the county official directory; county, town, and district maps; accounts of sessions of probate court and of circuit court; tax receipts, etc. If a collection like this is once begun pupils will be glad to bring much useful material from time to time.

3. Make use of tabular outlines and diagrams to bring out the large features of government or any important matter which it is desired to fix in mind.

4. Assign the lesson in such a way that pupils will often find it necessary to look for information in the library and to ask questions at home. In all possible legitimate ways encourage and stimulate the spirit of inquiry and investigation. In civics teaching the development of attitudes, interests, and habits is of the greatest importance.

5. Make use frequently of the study recitation, during which time teacher and pupils together work up some subject or study some topic, using different books. The teacher reads and talks, and so do the pupils. They all " get their heads together " to study some matter of common interest. The idea of reciting is pushed into the background, as it should be, and the idea of solving a problem is made the dominant thought.

6. Make much of all special occasions. " Strike while the iron is hot." Utilize the interest in the passing event. When the legislature is in session, talk about it. When the health officer has some special work in hand, discuss his duties. When Mr. Brown goes from your town to sit on the county board, watch the papers to see what is being done.

7. Arrange to have pupils report upon special topics for which they know the facts. Perhaps John's father, for example, is a public officer, and John may know about his duties. Let him tell what he knows, always keeping within the limits of discretion and leaving out personalities.

8. Be sure to apply civics to the real experiences of life. Civics is nothing at all if it is not practical. Betts, for example, asks why we should class each of the following as a good citizen: Washington, Lincoln, Grant, Frances Willard, Horace Mann, Edison. Then why is Mr. Smith

or Mr. Brown of the local community a good citizen? Why is each of the following not a good citizen: the man who does not vote; the man who sells his vote; the man who violates the quarantine law; the tax dodger; the boy who throws paper on the street? Apply civics teaching to everyday problems of participating citizenship.

9. Correlate civics with history, geography, arithmetic, and hygiene. See Dr. Allen's book, *Civics and Health.* Every teacher of civics in the upper grades should have three good-sized maps posted conspicuously — a map of the school district, one of the town, and one of the county. These should be done in ink on a good quality of manila paper. Refer to them often. For example, a map of the county is indispensable in discussing the county board. One can then more easily grasp the natural correlation of geography and civics. Many good arithmetic problems may be made by using the data secured in the civics work.

10. There is considerable opportunity in civics to dramatize certain important facts and relations. For example, if pupils can impersonate the President and the members of the Cabinet, if they can gather around a table and conduct a Cabinet meeting, they are not likely to forget what each department stands for. Each member should be called by name, and in the course of the deliberations each should tell what his department stands for, giving the chief forms of service which it renders. In the same way, other government officials — national, state, or local — can be successfully impersonated.

11. "The management of the school itself is the most vital phase of civics instruction." If the teacher has good order, a good system, a well-managed school, she is herself doing the best kind of civics teaching. If the teacher succeeds in securing coöperation and a respect for the rights of

others, she is making effective practical demonstration of successful work in civics. Conversely, a disorderly school, where pupils and teacher are on bad terms, where the emotional tone is low, where individual rights are disregarded, where lying, cheating, poor sportsmanship, and idleness prevail, is a school in which character is being broken down and boys and girls are being trained in bad citizenship, no matter how good the textbook or how excellent the academic instruction may be.

12. Start a monthly school paper. The author knows of several rural teachers who are successfully printing such papers. These are often four-page publications, about $9'' \times 12''$ in size. They provide a well-motivated kind of language training, but they also give practical training in citizenship. The school paper is printed on a hectograph, and the work is done mostly by pupils themselves. See Chapter IV in this book.

X. Searching, vital queries. A teacher could ask herself, as Doctor Betts suggests,[1] no more searching or vital questions to bring out the real purpose of civics than these:

Is your school generally law-observing with reference to school and other regulations? Can good civics instruction be given in an atmosphere of lawlessness? Have your pupils a feeling of pride in their school? Is there a tendency to injure or destroy public property about the school or community? If so, how can such a spirit be remedied? Are your pupils honest? Is there a tendency to cheat in examinations. What means do you take to create a spirit of squareness and self-control in the school? Are your pupils developing character? In your teaching of civics do you begin with the near-at-hand? Do your pupils know the local officeholders and their duties? Are they interested in public questions? Do you have your pupils engage in any civic activities?

[1] Betts — *Classroom Method and Management;* Bobbs-Merrill Co. 1917.

XI. Suggestive civic situations and centers of interest. The teacher's chief objective should be the development of right and active social-civic habits and attitudes. In order to do this, as has been pointed out, it is necessary to make use of those common, natural situations which are found in every school, home, and community. Habits and attitudes are always the result of properly motivated reactions to suitable situations. For example, note the social and civic opportunities suggested in numbers 3 and 4 below — play and the care of school and home. It is not only entirely possible to use the play situation and the suggested care of school and home as centers of helpful interest and useful reactions, but it is, of course, the duty of teachers and parents to make as profitable use as possible of such opportunities day by day. Civic situations are all about us all of the time, and fortunate is the teacher who can see them and use them for the benefit of the child's growth and development. Here are some situations that offer social and civic experiences:

1. The walk to and from school
2. Becoming familiar with the schoolroom and surroundings: furnishings, decorations, materials for work, school yard
3. Playing on the school grounds with other children
4. Helping to care for the surroundings at school and at home
5. Safety-first habits, or protection of self and others
6. Taking part in patriotic ceremonies
7. Providing entertainment or gifts for persons who need cheer
8. Taking part in club activities
9. Coming into contact with certain persons who represent the authority and service of organized society
10. Social groups — individual, family, neighborhood
11. Civic groups — school district, town, county
12. The school
13. Transportation — means of

14. Communication — how effected
15. Great inventors and builders
16. Health and sanitation
17. Thrift habits
18. Protecting life and property
19. Recreation

XII. Procedures in lower grades. In the first four grades the civics work should be correlated with the reading and language to a large extent. Conversation lessons may easily have a civic content, including true stories which illustrate the civic virtues. It is quite possible to make use of dramatization, and teachers can now find books giving definite material for this work. In all this early work in civics the element of *doing* needs constant emphasis. If pupils actually participate or render some service for the social group the training is of the right sort. For example, in connection with the management of a rural school there are always many little duties which the children can profitably discharge for their own welfare and that of the school. The school society furnishes useful opportunities for the practice of civic virtues. The morning exercise period may well be used part of the time for definite oral instruction in civics. Teachers should realize that the prime consideration is the development of habits and attitudes. These, of course, must result and can only result from participating activities. The ingenuity of the teacher will be shown in the ability to furnish occasions for such participation. The mere acquisition of knowledge is entirely inadequate.

XIII. Suggestions for projects.[1] Project procedures may involve both civic coöperation and civic participation. There is no subject in a country school which is richer in

[1] The author is indebted to the *Wisconsin Course of Study for Elementary Schools* for some suggestions in sections XI and XIII.

project material and possibilities than community civics, unless indeed it be agriculture, which itself often offers social and civic situations and training. To illustrate the usefulness of some of the suggested activities note numbers 25 or 26 below. In one there is the natural correlation with local history, and in the other we see the relation which is often found between civics and health. Rural teachers can readily arrange to have such histories prepared, and often county superintendents give credit for this in diploma examinations. Both the history and the health survey require several weeks' work, and during this period of study and preparation pupils are getting valuable training in social and civic life. The knowledge result is not so vitally important as the development of social and civic habits and attitudes. The following contain suggestions for projects:

1. Making collections of pictures illustrating roads, transportation and conveyances, danger signs, scenic beauty, etc. Mounting and classifying these
2. Going to the road commissioner for definite information and reporting on the visit
3. Improving the road near the schoolhouse
4. Making a collection of pictures which illustrate kind acts and thoughtful service. Mounting and classifying them
5. Making a list of directions for certain civic situations, such as meeting an automobile
6. Making booklets containing sketches, pictures, poems, etc.
7. Making lists of stories and poems with social and civic content
8. Describing how to treat the new boy or girl
9. The cleaning-up campaign
10. Health-chores — keeping the health score card
11. Visits of the county nurse
12. Preparing for special programs — listing stories and poems, arranging for dramatization

13. Sending Thanksgiving baskets to needy families
14. Making collections of clothing or toys for needy children
15. The noonday lunch
16. Regulating the playground
17. Finding the cost of school building
18. Finding the total cost of school for a year
19. Cataloging and arranging library books
20. Planting trees
21. Reading and reporting on the Lincoln or the Lee Highway
22. Making map of the county, showing main highways, especially concrete and stone roads
23. Making special study of rural free delivery
24. Collecting stamps
25. Preparing a history of the school district — an illustrated booklet
26. Health survey of school district
27. Health posters
28. Mending school books
29. Covering school books
30. Figuring cost of school lunch
31. Making out an individual budget for year
32 Savings-bank accounts
33. Planning complete playground equipment
34. Writing composition on "One of Our Spots of Scenic Beauty," illustrating with kodak views

XIV. Collections of materials. The rural teacher should procure a strong pasteboard box in which she will keep a collection of materials for use in teaching this subject. From time to time teacher and children can easily add to this useful collection which may include the following:

1. Pictures of various sorts
2. Newspaper clippings
3. A variety of ballots
4. Election notices

5. Lists of public officials. These must be kept corrected to date
6. Reports of meetings of county board, state legislature, Congress
7. Blanks and special forms, such as deeds, mortgages, licenses, petitions, and tax receipts
8. Charts, graphs, and diagrams
9. Maps of state, county, town, and district
10. Plans for proposed improvements
11. Lists of possible problems and projects
12. Especially useful project material which has been worked out
13. Collection of special bulletins
14. Lists of references and addresses showing where material may be secured
15. *Postal Information*, issued by postoffice department
16. Lists of special days
17. Samples of bills

Class Discussion Questions

1. State what you consider to be the essential personal qualities of a good American citizen.
2. May a naturalized alien not be Americanized? When and how will he become Americanized?
3. Do you think the title of this chapter is a good one? Discuss.
4. What is the difference between teaching community civics and teaching the constitutions or civil government?
5. Discuss the special aims mentioned in the third section. Would you omit any of them? Can you add to the list?
6. Name two good books which could be used as texts in the sixth grade. Would it be better to use them as supplementary readers or as basal texts?
7. Is there a *home civics* as truly as there is a *home geography?* What is the first and closest contact with government that a child ever has?

8. Would you have pupils commit to memory the Preamble to the Constitution? If not, why not? What about the President's oath of office? (Note that President Hoover took this oath. He did not *affirm*.) What is the best way to teach such material?

9. Illustrate the fact that a textbook in civics soon gets out of date. What do you think will be the next great change in our federal Constitution? With what subject will the XXth Amendment deal, in your opinion?

10. Give five illustrations of *seasonal* material in civics. Why "strike while the iron is hot"? What advantage is there in using the "psychologic moment"?

11. How can the school itself teach many valuable lessons in good citizenship? How can the school give bad training? Give several illustrations of each.

12. If you are a rural teacher, apply Dr. Bett's searching questions to your school. Try to add five more questions to the list.

13. What do you understand by a "civic situation or center of interest"? Assume that a child deposits money regularly in the Postal Savings Bank — is that a civic situation? Define civic situation.

14. Why should there be work in civics in every grade, every week at least, throughout the entire course?

15. Name five habits which characterize every good, useful, public-spirited citizen; five attitudes.

16. Indicate several things a rural teacher can do to habituate children in civic virtues, such as honesty, loyalty, coöperation, sense of responsibility.

Useful Supplementary Readings

1. Allen, W. H. — *Civics and Health;* Ginn and Company. 1909.

2. Ames, E. W., and Eldred, A. — *Community Civics;* The Macmillan Company. 1921.

3. *Blue Book*, or book of similar character issued in most of the states.

4. Betts, G. H. — *Classroom Method and Management;* Bobbs-Merrill Company. 1917.

5. Broome, E. C., and Adams, E. W. — *Conduct and Citizenship;* The Macmillan Company. 1926.

6. Bryant, S. C. — *I Am an American;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1918.

7. Cabot, E. L. — *Ethics for Children;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1910.

8. Cabot, E. L., Andrews, F. F., and Others — *A Course in Citizenship;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1914.

9. Hillegas, M. B., Briggs, T. H., and Sixty Other Authors — *The Classroom Teacher;* The Classroom Teacher, Inc. 1928. Twelve volumes. Contains some useful material on training for citizenship.

10. Character Education Institution — *Character Education Methods* (The Iowa Plan); The National Capital Press. 1922.

11. Collier, P. F., and Son — *A Basis for Character Education.* 1925.

12. *Congressional Directory* — (*Note:* You can secure this through your congressman.)

13. *"Current Events"* — (*Note:* This weekly news magazine for schools can be secured by writing to either New York, Chicago, or Columbus, O.)

14. Dole, C. F. — *New American Citizen;* D. C. Heath and Company. 1918.

15. Dunn, A. W. — *Community Civics and Rural Life;* D. C. Heath and Company. 1920.

16. Dunn, A. W. — *Civic Education in Elementary Schools; Bulletin, 1915, No. 17,* Bureau of Education.

17. Edmonson, J. B., and Dondineau, A. — *Citizenship Through Problems;* The Macmillan Company. 1927.

18. Ellis, A. C. — *Money Value of Education; Bulletin, 1917, No. 22,* Bureau of Education. (Price 15¢)

19. Field, James, and Nearing, Scott — *Community Civics;* The Macmillan Company. 1916.

20. Fryer, J. E. — *Community Interest and Public Spirit;* The John C. Winston Company. 1919.

21. Hanifin, L. J. — *The Community Center;* Silver, Burdett and Company. 1920.

22. Haskins, F. J. — *The American Government;* J. B. Lippincott Company. 1923.

23. Hill, H. C. — *Community Life and Civic Problems;* Ginn and Company. 1922.

24. Hill, Mabel — *Lessons for Junior Citizens;* Ginn and Company. 1906.

25. Hill, Mabel, and Davis, Philip — *Civics for New Americans;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1915.

26. Hughes, R. O. — *Elementary Community Civics;* Allyn and Bacon. 1922.

27. Hutchins, W. J. — *Children's Code of Morals for Elementary Schools;* The National Capital Press. 1916.

28. *Lessons in Community and National Life (Community Leaflets), Section C. for Intermediate Grades* — Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C. (Price 15¢)

29. Marwick, W. F., and Smith, W. A. — *The True Citizen;* American Book Company. 1900.

30. Maryland School Bulletin — *The Teaching of Citizenship in the Elementary Schools;* Maryland State Board of Education. 1926.

31. McVenn, G. E. — *Good Manners and Right Conduct;* D. C. Heath and Company. 1919. (2 vols.)

32. National Education Association — *Report of the Committee on Character Education;* Government Printing Office. 1926. *Bulletin, 1926, No. 7,* Bureau of Education.

33. Parsons, G. — *The Land of Fair Play;* Scribner's. 1919.

34. National Security League — *Patriotism through Education;* New York City. 1919.

35. Payne, G. E. — *Education in Accident Prevention;* Lyons and Carnahan. 1925.

36. PETERS, C. C. — *Human Conduct;* The Macmillan Company. 1918.

37. *Proceedings of County Board* — (*Note:* Such a free county publication may be secured in those states where county boards function. In other states corresponding government publications may be secured.)

38. REINSCH, PAUL — *The Young Citizen's Reader;* Benj. H. Sanborn and Company. 1916.

39. ROBERT, H. M. — *Rules of Order;* Scott, Foresman and Company. 1915. (Revised.)

40. SOUTH PHILADELPHIA HIGH SCHOOL FOR GIRLS — *Everyday Manners for American Boys and Girls;* The Macmillan Company. 1923.

41. *The Teaching of Community Civics — Bulletin, 1915, No. 23,* Bureau of Education. (Price 10¢)

42. TURKINGTON, G. A. — *My Country;* Ginn and Company. 1923. (Revised.)

43. *World Almanac and Book of Facts — Press Publishing Company* (current year). A valuable reference book on thousands of interesting and important subjects. Get latest edition. (Price by mail, $.60.)

Note: Write to The National Security League, New York City, 25 West Forty-Third Street, for teachers' patriotic leaflets and bulletins. J. W. Tiedmann is executive secretary.

Valuable civic source material is usually found in the local or county paper, whether weekly or daily. It will be found useful training to give pupils repeated opportunity to search out and to report civic information which they find in the papers for general exercises and at other times.

CHAPTER XIII

DEVELOPING DICTIONARY SKILLS

Every educated and scholarly person has of necessity formed the dictionary habit. This habit does not grow up over night. It is developed only through years of intelligent study and practice. Beginning in the fourth or fifth years of school life, the use of the dictionary should become a lifelong habit if the individual is to keep on growing. The school has no uncertain duty to the child so far as work with the dictionary is concerned. If the teacher herself will make a daily study of dictionaries, large and small, and of their possibilities in instruction, in the course of time she will have acquired knowledge and power greatly to her advantage, both personally and as a teacher. Some teachers are contented with obscure words and other teachers are always anxious for live meanings. Boys and girls cannot thrive on a steady diet of meaningless words. Textbooks are full of words; but no word, merely as such, ever helped anybody to master himself or his environment. Meanings, more meanings, and related meanings — this is what boys and girls need and what they really ask for. Teachers do well to spend plenty of time on difficult words so that they are charged with as rich a content of meaning as possible. It is ideas that are revolutionizing or at least evolving this old world of ours — not meaningless words.

I. Objectives in dictionary study. Stating them broadly, the aims of work with the dictionary are found in three essential learning outcomes: knowledge, skill, and attitude. In

this connection, the genuinely thoughtful teacher will find it helpful to read Chapter IX in *An Introduction to Teaching* by Bagley and Keith. The title of the chapter is "The Outcomes of Teaching and Learning." A clear comprehension of the definite aims in dictionary study will enable the teacher to make use of more effective procedures.

See to it that the children understand and actually use some good dictionary. Among other things the teacher needs to distinguish in aim, on the one hand, between finding words merely as such, through an understanding and use of the alphabetic and page arrangement, and, on the other hand, finding the meanings of words and phrases that fit the given situation, or getting exact pronunciations.

II. School dictionaries. There are a number of dictionaries especially prepared for schools that have been widely recognized. That recognition may be regarded as some guarantee that they serve well the purposes for which they are prepared. All of these dictionaries have been listed by title, author, and publisher in the bibliography at the end of this chapter. It has been said that "any dictionary is better than none"; while there may be a measure of truth in that saying, it is unfortunate that both teachers and school boards sometimes buy cheap, unauthorized, and unreliable dictionaries. It takes great learning and scholarship to define a word in all its various uses, to determine in the face of many popular but wrong practices the correct pronunciation, and also to trace out derivations. The making of a dictionary implies on the part of the maker familiarity with many languages and, when it comes to the usage of words, familiarity with many literatures. The school should have the benefit of the best scholarship in the dictionaries that are used there. Publishers of dictionaries of good standing, especially if the school dictionaries are based

upon unabridged dictionaries, commonly employ a board of editors who are constantly working upon this phase of dictionary production with a view to keeping their books up-to-date and to future revisions.

III. Differences in dictionaries. It is the common practice in elementary schools to introduce as early as the fourth and fifth grades a small dictionary, called a shorter or an elementary dictionary, and a somewhat more advanced compilation, known as an advanced or secondary dictionary, in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades. Many schoolrooms to-day are equipped with at least one unabridged dictionary and sometimes one or two college or collegiate dictionaries. Every schoolroom should be provided with at least one unabridged dictionary. Both teachers and pupils should know that the public libraries which they use usually contain all of the accepted unabridged dictionaries for purposes of comparison by the student. It is not uncommon to find items of meaning, derivation, or usage in one dictionary that have not been included in another, even though both of them are unabridged. Systems of indicating pronunciation, arrangement (especially of definitions), and the abbreviations used differ in different dictionaries. These differences should be understood by both teacher and pupil if they use the different dictionaries, so that they may be able to translate the information of one into terms of the other. It should be noted in this connection that many states have indicated some dictionary in good standing as their official standard. In such cases, schools should follow the standard of the state. Teachers and supervisors who are especially interested in dictionary problems should write to the various companies listed at the end of this chapter for descriptive literature. If the book by Rice entitled *Lessons on the Use of the Library* is available, it will prove useful.

IV. Twenty tests of a small dictionary.[1]

1. When you examine a dictionary, are you sure that it is a copy of the latest edition?
2. What is it based on? What authority is back of it? Does it lead to a larger dictionary?
3. Is its vocabulary of the right size and kind? Are its words not in present general use so specified?
4. Is the space devoted to each word adequate to its importance?
5. Is sufficient attention paid to the explanation of common idiomatic expressions?
6. Do words with the same spelling but unrelated meanings have a corresponding number of entries or only one?
7. Are all the accepted forms of spelling of words given or only one? Is the preferred spelling indicated? What is the difference in the treatment of the two forms?
8. Is the pronunciation of words clearly shown?
9. Are the definitions of words clear and exact in meaning?
10. How are the derivatives defined? Are they given individual vocabulary entry if any difficulty of definition is involved?
11. Do the definitions of a word follow the historical order? Are they kept distinct so that there is no confusion?
12. Are the meanings of words followed by well-chosen illustrative examples?
13. In the synonyms of words are the differences in meaning clearly brought out?
14. In the definitions of certain words are the opposite meanings given?
15. Are the inflected forms of words shown when they are irregular?
16. Are the grammatical relations indicated?
17. Is the syllabication clearly shown?
18. What supplementary information is included?

[1] Copyright, American Book Company, New York and Chicago, publishers of the smaller abridged Merriam-Webster dictionaries. Used by permission.

19. Is the typography well chosen?
20. Are the illustrations good?

V. Wealth of information. The average person has a very inadequate conception of the resources of a good dictionary. In general, we find the dictionary to be the court of last resort for spellings, pronunciations, and meanings; but in these three fields of knowledge of words there is little accuracy and less desire for accuracy on the part of most people. It takes years to build up an appreciation of the dictionary as an ever-ready friend and helper in time of need. Few grammar-school graduates, indeed few high-school graduates have any conception of dictionary resources — still fewer have used them all. In order to get some idea of the materials found in one dictionary in common use in grammar grades, note the following list of general divisions of the book.

1. Key to sound symbols
2. Elements of spoken English
3. Sounds classified according to place or manner of formation
4. Assimilation of sounds
5. Duplication of consonants
6. Accent
7. Additional symbols for indicating pronunciation without respelling
8. Rules for pronunciation of Latin
9. Rules for pronunciation of Spanish
10. Rules for spelling certain classes of words
11. Abbreviations used in work
12. Explanatory notes
13. Dictionary of English language
14. Geographical and biographical names
15. Foreign words and phrases
16. Abbreviations used in writing and printing

VI. Using the dictionary: (1) *Alphabetic order of words* — Even in the third grade pupils should be taught to arrange words alphabetically. In all dictionaries and encyclopedias the alphabetic order is used, not only for the first letter of each word, but for succeeding letters as needed. By the use of indexes, small dictionaries, and other word lists, pupils will gain facility in finding words in alphabetic arrangement.

(2) *Finding words* — In order to find words quickly in their dictionaries, children must know about the guide words or catchwords at the top of each page. The word at the head of the left-hand column is the first word on the page, and the word over the right-hand column is the last word on the page. It will be easy after practice to decide that the word required does or does not come between the two words in the *running head*, as it is called, at the top of the page. If it does, then it can be found on this particular page. Children must be taught to make regular use of the guide words in the running head.

(3) *Pronunciations* — No person can ascertain the pronunciation of a word without knowing the system of phonic symbols and the method of respelling. The long and short vowel sounds must be learned by the use of key words; and the learning of all the vowel symbols and sounds, together with the consonants, requires that pupils have much intelligent, effective drill practically every day. Many teachers do not themselves know these symbols and cannot utter some of the sounds. Such persons must of course learn all of this before they can teach it. In fifth and sixth grades sufficient drill should be used so that pupils are able to interpret the symbols without hesitation. This is a specific aim for these grades. At the foot of all the pages of a dictionary pupils will find symbols and key words which will

assist in getting pronunciations. Many high-school students cannot interpret all of these symbols, as they were never taught to do so. This is a field for careful and repeated instruction and for much intelligent drill.

(4) *Syllabication and accent* — If the student will look up the word *superintendent*, he will find that there are five syllables and two accents. The primary accent (heavy) is on *tend* and the secondary (light) on *su*. Note the heavy and the light accent marks. The short, light hyphen separates the syllables where the accent marks do not do so. The heavy, long hyphen is used for hyphenated, compound words, such as *to-day*, *pall-mall*, or *school-teacher*. Syllabication is very important. The first syllable in superintendent is *su* not *sup*. Note the change of meanings, indicated by change of accent, in these words: *sub'ject — sub ject'*; *per'mit — per mit'*. Here change of accent changes the part of speech and the meaning.

(5) *Synonyms* — A large number of synonyms are often discriminated. If teacher and pupil have difficulty, for example, in knowing when to use such words as *flock*, *herd*, *drove*, *pack*, *bevy*, *covey*, *swarm*, *shoal* — all with a common meaning — look for the expressions in which your dictionary uses them. The careful use of synonymous expressions is one mark of a trained mind. The English language is strong in words that are so alike or so nearly alike in meaning that their accurate use requires careful discrimination.

(6) *Homophones* — Some words are alike in sound, but are spelled differently and have different meanings. These are homophones or homonyms, such as *sent*, *cent*, and *scent*; *pear*, *pair*, and *pare*, etc. Thirty-three per cent of the "one hundred spelling demons" are homonyms. The dictionary proves to be a valuable aid in studying such words, for it indicates not only the meaning, but the part

of speech of each word. The pupil learns also to relate meaning to spelling.

(7) *Cross references* — Let us suppose that you read in the dictionary that a philosopher is " one versed in, or devoted to, philosophy." It is evident that you will not know what a philosopher is unless you know something of what philosophy is. So you look down the column and find that " philosophy is knowledge of phenomena as explained by, and resolved into, causes and reasons, powers and laws." Now you know more than you did before, but you may need to look up phenomena also. In getting the meaning of derivatives it is usually necessary to find the definitions of the *roots* or *stems*. The real student is not satisfied until he pieces together enough definitions to satisfy his desire for completeness and accuracy.

(8) *Derivations* — All words in the English language are derivatives or roots. Derivative words are made by using a prefix or suffix, or both, with the root word. By combining meanings of root words with prefixes and suffixes a pupil is able to build up words for himself with the help of a dictionary. In this way, also, basic meanings may be formed *without* the dictionary, a skill of great practical value to the pupil. *Export* — L. *ex, out,* and *portare, to carry;* to carry out, literally. L. *im,* in the word *import* means *into*. What does *import* mean?

(9) *Spelling* — The dictionary is the ultimate authority in the spelling of all words. If in doubt refer at once to the dictionary. Then make a special effort to " fix in mind " and to use in future. Note that the preferred spelling, as well as pronunciation, is always given first. Both *judgment* and *judgement* are correct, but *judgment* is the preferred, common spelling. Sometimes, in other words, both spellings are in equally good usage.

(10) *Capitalization* — Most of the words in a dictionary vocabulary are begun with small letters. Only those words are capitalized which should be capitalized; thus, Julian, Juliet (note pronunciation), July, June, June beetle, Juno, and Jupiter.

(11) *Prefixes* and *suffixes* — Teachers will find a study of prefixes and suffixes of much value in getting the meanings of words. Look in the dictionary for *bi-*, *hemi-*, *trans-*, *poly-*, etc. These prefixes have interesting meanings. Find, also, the suffixes *-able*, *-ance*, *-ent*, *-ous*, *-graph*, etc. Word analysis, in which attention is given to the roots or stems and the suffixes and prefixes of words, is a very profitable study. Many spelling books give lists and exercises for this work.

(12) *Quotations* — In unabridged dictionaries, in particular, more than in the smaller dictionaries, the student will find apt quotations which will illustrate the use of a given word. Both prose and poetry are used for this purpose. Find several examples of such quotations, which are usually from the writings of well-known authors.

(13) *Abbreviations, signs, symbols* — The abbreviations used in a dictionary are usually listed alphabetically together with all common abbreviations used in writing and printing. Teachers should have frequent exercises on both sets of abbreviations. Everyone needs to refer to these useful lists repeatedly so as to use the dictionary intelligently, and also so as to use ordinary abbreviations with accuracy. Many signs and symbols, such as +, −, *, †, etc., are given in the general vocabulary. Look up *plus*, *minus*, *asterisk*, *dagger*. What are the last two symbols used for?

(14) *Getting the right meaning* — Children need constant training in finding the meaning which the given sentence

(the *context*, as we say) calls for. Many words have two or more, sometimes many, meanings, and sometimes the word is found printed in the vocabulary two or more times. Turn to the word *light*, for a good illustration. It will be necessary to determine whether a word is used as a noun, or as an adjective, or as some other part of speech. Of course, only upper-grade pupils can do this work. The definitions of a word are generally arranged in historical order, that is, the order in which the meanings of the word have developed. Some dictionaries, however, undertake to list definitions in the order of frequency of use, the commonest meaning standing first.

(15) *Illustrations, diagrams, etc.* — Good dictionaries contain hundreds of illustrations, and these should be used in gaining information. Many times a picture is better than a long description, and helps greatly to understand the definition. See the definition and picture of *rhinoceros*. See also illustrations of *castle, armor, harness, plow*.

(16) *Phrases* — Not only are words defined in the dictionary, but also such phrases as *over one's head, to take the air, naked eye,* and *Hobson's choice*. In the unabridged dictionary we find a large number of such expressions with meanings clearly set forth. This is an invaluable aid to the reader who desires to understand what he reads.

(17) *Glossaries* — In the same dictionaries there are also long lists of both biographical and geographical names, together with much desirable information concerning dates, areas, populations, locations, nationalities, and the like. Before using these glossaries of proper names the student should read the accompanying explanations.

(18) *Foreign terms* — Sometimes we find a pronouncing dictionary of foreign words and phrases such as *status quo, e pluribus unum, in loco parentis*, and scores of others. The

origin, the pronunciation, and the meaning are all given. It is not difficult for eighth-grade pupils to learn some of these terms most commonly found in literature. Some of the more common phrases like *viva voce* are found in the main vocabulary. Find two other similar illustrations.

(19) *Helps in grammar* — Many high-school graduates are surprised to learn that they can find irregular plurals of nouns, declension of pronouns, comparisons of adjectives and adverbs, principal parts of irregular verbs, whether a verb is transitive or intransitive, and other similar information, in the dictionary. Such aids as these in grammar frequently prove to be very convenient to the student.

The above analysis of the resources of the dictionary does not exhaust the subject. The descriptions will, however, enable the teacher to get perhaps a new appreciation of the value of the dictionary, and she herself may be prompted to use this necessary tool more and to teach its use more completely to her pupils.

VII. Supervised study required. In rural schools it is common to combine the fifth and sixth grades into one class, and the seventh and eighth grades into another class. Each pupil in the fifth and sixth grades should be provided with an elementary-school dictionary in good condition, and each pupil in the two upper grades should own a good copy of an advanced or a secondary-school dictionary. If each child possesses a personal copy, the teacher can readily make dictionary assignments and conduct study exercises with careful supervision. The purpose is to have each child acquire an attitude, a knowledge, and skill which will have a beneficial influence upon his work in all the subjects of the school. Perhaps one period a week, starting with the fifth grade, should be devoted to simple but intensified dictionary study. The teacher may make use of a variety of proce-

dures. Most of the work should consist of actual teaching, based upon assigned problems, with books open. Drill exercises are of course necessary in order to develop skill, but this should never be mechanical or formal. Rather it should be as highly motivated as possible. Testing procedures should also be used frequently, using tests of both knowledge and of ability to do.

VIII. Need for habituation exercises. Pupils will not learn to use the dictionary skillfully unless they practice its use day after day. The desire of the teacher should be to bring about such a thorough familiarity with the book that the children will finally use it with readiness, ease, and facility. In order to accomplish this result, the child must be taught to see the reason or need for dictionary mastery, so as to produce a genuine, inherent interest. Motivation, to the point of strong desire, is the first essential. Then when anything new is attempted, before repetition or drill is begun, the child must catch the new idea. Teachers often drill pupils on what they do not understand. This is a capital mistake. Thinking exercises, in which meanings are carefully developed, should always precede attentive repetition. Too often this repetition is merely lifeless practice in which the child is dreadfully bored. Good drill is lively, interesting, well-motivated. There are many expedients for making drill effective, such as games. The fourth step in the work of habit formation is always to see to it that the child does not repeat errors, that he makes as few mistakes as possible. If repetition is attentive and thoughtful, there will be less likelihood of mistakes — law of effect. Practice which results in facility is pleasant, satisfying practice. Every effort should be made to have the child feel that he is doing something valuable and well worth while to him personally.

IX. Starting a long journey. The long journey is the lifelong use of the dictionary; it should begin in the third and fourth grades in connection with the teaching of reading and spelling. It is not difficult to teach children the alphabetic arrangement and to drill them on finding words quickly. Readers and other textbooks may be used for lists of words. Children should be taught to use indexes in order to find what they want. In these grades pupils should begin the development of a word consciousness, of a genuine interest in the meanings of words which will persist throughout life. Simple words and meanings may be found, under the teacher's direction. If each child has a dictionary, an occasional exercise should be spent upon it, so that the children become familiar with the general nature of the book, and learn to know what it is to be used for. The simple long and short phonic symbols and the vowel sounds can readily be taught, and the usefulness of key words can be made plain. The illustrations should be used, and children trained to get needed information from pictures, such as those concerning birds, trees, plants, tools, and the like. Simple abbreviations also may be taught. All the work should be simple and elementary, but a good start can be made early on a very long journey.

X. The problem of pronunciation. The following suggestive lessons on pronunciation, taken by permission from the Michigan Common School Course, are illustrative of what may be done on other topics, as well, such as definitions; finding given words; grammar; illustrations and colored plates; phrases and fictitious names; prefixes and suffixes; proper names and foreign words and phrases; spelling; and synonyms. It can readily be seen that a prime prerequisite of success is the clear-cut utterance of the teacher herself, for imitation is a powerful factor.

EXERCISES IN PRONUNCIATION

The *aim* is to train pupils to pronounce words correctly by use of the dictionary. This work may be done in grades four to eight, and in the spelling or reading class.

Indicated pronunciation. — Assign several words at random for the pupils to find in the dictionary. They will see that in nearly every case the word is respelled in marks of parentheses after the vocabulary entry. If the sound which a marked letter represents is forgotten, reference should be made to the key words running across the bottom of each page.

Accent. — Considerable difficulty is often experienced in accenting a given syllable. Words accented on different syllables according to their use, such as ac′cent (*n*) ac cent′ (*v*), may be written on the board and children be given practice in pronouncing them.

Numbers. — Look up *gone* in the dictionary. In the Secondary-School Dictionary and in the International a number is found after the respelling. This number refers to a section in the Guide to Pronunciation in the front of the book. There it is found that such words as *gone, soft, cross*, etc., are often pronounced with the sound of *o* as in *orb* or with that of *o* as in *odd*, but properly take a medial sound between the two. While it is not always necessary to look up these references, children should become acquainted with the nature of this part of the dictionary.

Preferred pronunciation. — Call for the pronunciation of some word which has two or more pronunciations, as *automobile.* Then have the children consult the dictionary for the correct pronunciation. When there are two pronunciations always choose the first.

Look up the pronunciation of the following words: *glory, pretty, banana, granary, recess, Mrs., grimy, dictionary, sirup, lost, permit, gallant, horrid, newspaper, docile, clematis, finance, illustrate, laboratory, library, bouquet, Italian, history, mountain, maintain, spectator, majority, constitution, government, geography, genuine, defeat, recess, root, tiny, wont, nape, cupola, bonnet, creek, been, allies, patron, coffee, donkey, orange.*

TEST IN PRONUNCIATION[1]

Read deliberately, pronouncing each word distinctly:

A Visit to the Deering High School

A member of the executive board started out in blithe spirits to visit the Deering High School. He heard the soughing of the wind through the trees. Glancing backward, he saw a boy on the sidewalk vigorously working the pedals of his bicycle and evidently enjoying the matutinal exercise. Stepping aside, he gave him the precedence, though thinking it might be establishing a bad precedent to allow cycling on the sidewalk. The boy touched the visor of his cap in polite salute and rode on. He soon met a doctor who informed him that he had patients ill with bronchitis, appendicitis, and a case of diphtheria with the parotid gland badly affected. He said his horse seemed very docile, but he was overworked as his other had an attack of epizootic. He would buy another, but the status of his finances was such that it would leave a deficit in his cash account.

An isolated rock of huge size met his gaze as he passed along. He soon observed in the distance an object approaching that resembled a calliope escorting the pageantry of a circus. It proved to be an automobile with a party in jocund spirits on their way to attend a vaudeville performance.

He reached the school before recess and met the principal in the recess of the building. In the library he saw one young lady reading the poems of Felicia Hemans; another was deeply absorbed in a romance. One was writing an essay on the "Resources of Maine," and her companion was looking up Palestine on the map. A young man of robust physique was preparing an address on orthoepy and orthoepical subjects He had reached the finale of his writing. He was asked to read his address but he replied with a grimace that he was not ready to do that.

The chemical laboratory seemed well supplied with needed

[1] Published by G. and C. Merriam Company, Springfield, Massachusetts. Printed by permission.

apparatus. One of the boys drew water from a faucet and colored it with cochineal. Another went to the pharmacist for benzine, strychnine, iodine, cocaine, iodide of potassium, calcined plaster, shellac, peroxide of hydrogen, carmine ink, fulminic powder, and arseniureted powder. The glittering facets of a turquoise gem, worn by one of the young ladies, caught the eye of the committee. In the Greek class the teacher was discoursing on the indirect discourse and on the errors often made in pronunciation. The class in algebra was comparing the similarity of algebra to arithmetic and also solving complex, simultaneous equations. The teacher of expression was discussing accent and drilling her class to accent the proper syllable. They were reading the following: "I contemplate often a plethoric, peremptory, sacrilegious, invalid inmate, who seems acclimated though enervated. He, according to the legend, is an aspirant for the fame of a conjurer. He holds in his hand a vase illustrated by a distich from a Latin satire."

The teacher of the physical geography class had made a collection of caoutchouc, cochineal, apricots, syrup strained through a colander ready for culinary use, spinach, and bananas. In the geometry class he heard the two sides alternate in demonstrating the equality of alternate angles. The class in civil government seemed much interested in municipal problems. They were planning to perfect an organization to conduct a town meeting in accordance with the usages of our modern civilization.

The students were courteous in their manners and observant of of the etiquette of the school.[1]

XII. Articulation drills. To articulate well is to utter sounds with distinctness, bringing out clearly and sharply both vowel and consonant elements, with proper attention to correct syllabication and accent. Muddled speech, with

[1] This test is also a drill exercise, printed here for the benefit of the teacher and for use, also, in teacher-training classes. The value of such work will depend upon painstaking and repeated use of the dictionary. Ability to interpret all phonic symbols is essential.

indistinct, slovenly utterance, is an exceedingly common habit which the school is in duty bound to make a sincere effort to correct. This will require daily practice upon careful *enunciation* or *utterance*, including correct pronunciation and accurate articulation of the vocal or phonic elements, both vowel and consonant. The dictionary is an indispensable aid in this necessary work. The teacher will use a variety of means to develop interest in, and properly to motivate, such articulation exercises as those below. Occasional use of such material will train in more accurate observation and will increase the child's desire to improve. Similar nonsense " tongue-twisters " may readily be found in many sources; teacher and pupils will also find it interesting and profitable to compose some of their own:

1. The curious clock ticked twenty tiresome Twelfth-nights away.
2. Beulah broke Bertha's beautiful basket, bumping Belle Bassett on the head.
3. Thirteen thirsty thrushes flew through the thicket.
4. The bad boy Bob brought barrels of bananas from Bermuda.
5. Lazy Lizzy likes to lick large lollipops.
6. Pretty, playful Polly, patiently putting pins in a paper precisely, pricked poor pussy's paw.
7. The big brown bug buzzed busily around the blackberry bushes.
8. Thelma thanked them for the thimble.
9. Pretty Patsy Pan picked pink posies.
10. Little Lillian Langdon lost the lazy lady's lid.
11. See the sea shells along the sea shore.
12. The shiny shingles were shimmering in the sunshine.
13. Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers.
14. Eight great gray geese grazing gayly in glorious Greece.
15. Billy bought big brown buns.

16. Of all the saws I ever saw saw, I never saw a saw saw as this saw saws.
17. Sarah snored soundly as the snake sneaked into her sanctuary.
18. His hoary hair hung heavily about his haggard face.
19. Step slowly, slyly, solemnly, along the slippery slide.
20. The shining sun shines on the shining sea.

XIII. Let's play a game. Send to G. and C. Merriam Company, Springfield, Massachusetts, for their 44-page booklet entitled, "What Fun to Play Merriam-Dictionary Games." This little book is full of useful information for a rural teacher. There is a graded course in the use of the dictionary, and teacher and pupils are told definitely how to play several different dictionary games.

The Flag Game is to be played with the aid of the *New International Dictionary* and is really a game of questions of which the following are suggestive: (1) Name four flags of red, white, and blue. (2) Which flag has a white cross in a field of red? (3) Which flag has an animal upon a red field? (4) Name three flags each of which has only one star. (5) Describe the President's flag. (6) What flag has now fourteen stars? (7) When did our flag have thirteen stars? (8) How are the stars in "Old Glory" arranged? (9) How many red stripes? (10) Which is longer, the starry field or the short stripes in a standard United States flag?

In the *Pronunciation Game* a list of words frequently mispronounced is placed upon the blackboard. The following is a suggested list: *concentrate, formidable, extirpate, impious, natural, hospitable, isolate, camera, illustrate, peremptory, compromise, Illinois, sacrilegious, patriot, telegrapher, vehement, schedule, sergeant.*

The pupils are first to arrange the words in alphabetical

order and then to indicate the correct pronunication as printed in the dictionary. If two pronunciations are given as permissible both must be recorded. Only important words are suggested, each to be rated as five points. To encourage careful penmanship, however, a bonus of ten points or less is to be given for neatness.

Some other games described in this booklet are as follows: *relay race, word hunt, speed test, team race, grammar game, arrangement game, biographical game, drawing contest, puzzle game, correct-page game, character game, missing-letters game.*

Here are ten suggested seat-work questions: (1) What is the population of Chicago? (2) What part of speech is *inclement?* (3) How do you syllabicate *incomprehensibility?* (4) Explain the derivation of *boycott.* (5) Of what country is the *kangaroo* a native? (6) How was the title *Czar* derived? (7) How did the *dahlia* get its name? (8) In what city is the *gondola* largely used? (What is happening to make this question obsolete?) (9) What is the difference between *P.M.* and *M.P.?* (10) Are there more abbreviations beginning with *M* or with *P?*

XIV. Dictionary *do's* and *dont's*. (1) Plan all dictionary work in advance, something after the following outline:

SUGGESTIVE METHOD FOR DICTIONARY LESSONS IN UPPER GRADES

A. *Object* — Usually a statement of aim of lesson, *i.e.*, of children's work.

B. *Assignment of problem* — Usually the assignment should be written on the board, with illustrative examples. Individual copies may be made by using carbon paper or hectograph.

C. *Explanation of lesson* —
   1. Example
   2. Where found in dictionary
   3. Practical use

D. Child's work — File in the dictionary booklet a regular preparation of lesson

E. Summary of important points

(2) Don't attempt to teach too much in one lesson.

(3) Make dictionary study a separate exercise, concentrating upon the subject matter with the dictionary as a text.

(4) Don't expect to get the best results unless all of the children are supplied with suitable dictionaries.

(5) Consider the needs of individual pupils in word study, having each child keep his own individual word list.

(6) Don't assign lists of words of which the children are to write out formal dictionary definitions.

(7) See that skills gained in dictionary study are transferred to the various subjects of the school.

(8) Don't expect to secure good results unless you make a regular business of dictionary study.

(9) In every class, words will need attention, but it is not necessary to halt the arithmetic or geography procedures to use dictionaries. That is usually a mistake here as well as in oral reading classes.

(10) Don't expect children to do much by themselves, unsupervised. They need constant suggestion, checking, and correction.

(11) Use study recitations repeatedly to acquaint pupils with the dictionary and to direct the study of words.

(12) Don't attempt to introduce your children to the dictionary unless you have more than a " bowing acquaintance " with it yourself.

(13) Clear up word difficulties yourself by oral explanation, when necessary to save time or to further the procedure in civics, hygiene, or other subjects.

(14) Don't forget to send to the G. and C. Merriam Company for their useful free publications.

(15) Make word lists every day in different subjects, which pupils can be working on at their seats when trained how to do so.

(16) Don't ignore the fact that even third-grade pupils can learn something from small dictionaries.

(17) Utilize the play and game ideas repeatedly, always stressing educational training and results.

(18) Don't rest easy until you develop real abilities and start to fix useful habits.

(19) Teach values and uses of all parts of the dictionary. Many times pupils are quite unaware of the rich, unused resources of this book.

(20) Don't fail to understand and to appreciate the fact that word study should be an essential study in the school during the child's entire course.

XV. Suggestive test and practice exercises. The questions below will stimulate the spirit of inquiry, serve for both drill and testing, and give the pupils practice in using different parts of the dictionary. Every rural teacher should frequently make out similar questions calling for a variety of information. No one can be a real student who does not habitually make use of the dictionary and other reference books. In finding the answers to these questions, use the unabridged dictionary when the smaller dictionary does not give the needed information.

(1) Pronounce the full name of the man who discovered America. When and where born? (2) Which is the larger, Switzerland or your state? Which has the larger population? (3) Find three words which have two pronunciations. Which one is preferred in each case? (4) What do the following abbreviations mean as used in the dictionary: *A.*, *F.*, *obs.*, *sing.*, *v.i.*, *prep.*, *syn.*, *Gram.*,

pl., *Russ.*, *V.*, *v.?* Find one illustration for use of each. (5) When are the plurals given in the dictionary and when not? What is the plural of *sheep*, *lady*, *appendix*, *genus*, *gypsy?* (6) What do you find at the bottom of each page? Of what use is this? (7) Find the principal parts of *be*, *do*, *sing*, *run*, *sit*, *set*, *lie*, *lay*. (8) Name the parts of a plow; of a bird; of a flower. (9) How old was Washington when he died? Lincoln? Irving? Longfellow? Whittier? (10) On some coins you find the Latin words *e pluribus unum*. What do they mean? (11) Find the proper abbreviations for the states bordering the Great Lakes. (12) What do these abbreviations stand for: *r.*, *s.*, *vs.*, *vv.*, *pp.*, *pk.*, *pkg.*, *O.T.*, *O.K.*, *P.M.?* (13) Find pictures of ten common birds in the dictionary. Note fraction near illustration. What does this mean? (14) What is meaning of the prefix *anti?* Of the suffix *less?* (15) How do you pronounce *coffee? soft? often? not? nor? orb? odd?* Be sure you are right. (16) How do you pronounce *literature? New Orleans? Himalaya? spectator? nature?* (18) Give key words for four different sounds of the letter *a*. (19) Do you see any difference in the sound of *u* in these two words: *use*, *unite?* (20) Pronounce *dictionary*, *majority*, and *government* correctly. Many people, including teachers, mispronounce these words. (21) Which syllable is accented in *advertisement?* Is there any other way to spell it? (22) It is often said that the teacher is *in loco parentis*. What is the meaning? (23) What do these stand for: *i.e.; e.g.; viz.?* Use them correctly in sentences. (24) Which is right: a *sitting* hen or a *setting* hen? (25) Which is larger, Lake Superior or Caspian Sea? Australia or United States? (26) Try to find these words in your dictionary: *flivver*, *jazz band*, *cafeteria*, *ace* (World War definition), *jitney*, *zeppelin*. (27) Copy figures of *triangles*, *trapezium*, *parallelogram*, *pentagon*, and *rectangle*, and compare them. (28) Which is the larger, *robin* or *bluebird; weasel* or *woodchuck?* How do you tell? (29) How many stars in the flag? White stripes? Red stripes? How many long stripes? Short stripes? (3) In the dictionary the part of speech to which each word belongs is indicated as follows: noun ——, pronoun ——, verb ——, adjective ——, adverb ——, prepo-

sition ——, conjunction ——, interjection ——. (Fill blanks.) (31) What is a *dictaphone? dictograph?* (32) Are a *calendar* and a *calender* the same? (33) What is a *whaleback?* (34) Is a *white ant* an ant? (35) Arrange the names of the pupils in your school alphabetically. The months in the year. The forty-eight states of the Union. (36) Of what use is the divided page in the unabridged dictionary? (37) Are these words in strict alphabetic order: *many, market, marble, member, master, measure?* If not, so arrange them. (39) List these words in alphabetic order: *honey, kitchen, trouble, pleasant, hungry, shutting, leather, because, thousand, figures, changing, moments, seconds, blossom, company, pocket, doctor, money, double, sudden.* (39) Look up the derivation (roots, suffixes, and prefixes) of *manuscript, locomotive, automobile, phonograph, telephone, telegraph.* (40) Write the dictionary abbreviations for *Latin, French, Greek, Anglo-Saxon, English, German.* (41) Find and write ten irregular plurals, such as *mouse — mice.* (42) How are compound words shown in the dictionary? Write five of them. (43) Who jointly owns the Samoan Islands? Give area and population. (44) Have you read the fine print which precedes the glossary of biographical and geographical names? What information is found there? (45) How large was the great Chinese Wall? (46) What is *stippling? Graining?* (47) Where is Lock Katrine? What is its length? (48) Who owns Greenland? Iceland? (49) Give value of a *yen, franc, mark.* Also country in which each is used. (50) Which spelling is preferred, *sirup* or *syrup? cipher* or *cypher? judgment* or *judgement? advertize* or *advertise?* How do you tell? (51) Is *advise* a noun or a verb? Analyze *advise* into root and prefix. (52) Are *homonyms* the same as *homophones?* Define and give a three-word illustration. (53) What was the *Holy Grail?* (54) What is the difference between a *café* and a *cafeteria?* Pronounce these words. (55) What is a *coupé?* Derived from what language? Do you pronounce *coupé* like *coop?* What is a *coop?* (56) Give key words for all sounds of the letter *e.* (57) Which has the larger population, your state or the city of Chicago? (58) How many areas of Delaware in the area of Texas? (59) Give exact difference in meaning

between *liberal* and *generous; news* and *tidings; knowledge* and *wisdom.* (60) Make a list of ten prefixes and give their meanings. (61) Make a list of ten suffixes and give their meanings. (62) Compare these adjectives by looking them up in the dictionary: *good, ill, little, well.* (63) Give three *related* words for *each* of these five words (illustration — *agree* — *agreement* — *agreeable* — *disagree*): *serve, heal, direct, act, equal.* (64) Find correct definition of *light* as used in this sentence: He ate a light dinner. (65) Find the definition for *light* as used in this sentence: Her story placed the young man in a bad light in the district. (66) How many definitions do you find in your dictionary for the word *bay* as a noun; as a verb; as an adjective? (67) How many definitions in the same dictionary for *fall?* Which part of speech is defined in each case? (68) When a word has several definitions in the dictionary, how do you know which one to select? (69) Who was Scrooge? Aladdin? Micawber? Evangeline? Rip Van Winkle? Gobbo? Buffalo Bill? (70) Find the following phrases in the dictionary and tell what they mean: "to eat one's words"; "up a stump"; "over his head"; "hold your horses"; "mackerel sky." (71) How do the populations of the city of Washington and the District of Columbia compare? Give the area of the latter. (72) Which is larger and how much, San Francisco or Los Angeles? (73) Consult the unabridged dictionary to see if these sentences are good English: The tramp *made tracks* for the road when the dog appeared. The poor family lived a *hand-to-mouth* existence. I *reckon* you'd better move on, stranger. If I get that new job, I'll be all *jake.* He looks *down in the mouth.* (74) Pronounce these words correctly: *library, maintain, history, Italian, genuine, newspaper, fifth, orthoepy, acclimate.* (75) Mark to indicate pronunciation: *food, foot, odd, soft, orb, end, ask, arm, care, urn.* (76) What do the guide or catch words at the top of a page indicate? (77) Syllabicate the following words and mark the accent: *superintendent, cosmopolitan, interdependence, pronunciation, syllabication, automobile.* (78) Look up these prefixes and tell what they mean: *ante-, dia-, bi-, mis-, epi-.* (79) Mark the accented syllable: *recess, allies, museum, deficit, finance, research,*

horizon. (80) Get the meanings of the following Latin roots: *finis, liber, nomen, pedis, spectrum, flexus.* (81) Write an English word derived from each of the above roots. (82) Look up these words in your school dictionary and note especially what is given in brackets: *boycott, union, Thursday, buckwheat, captain, December.* (83) Give the mark for the indicated letter in each word: senate, event, ever, unite. (84) What is a *junior high school?* (85) What is the meaning of *SOS?* (86) What is the meaning of your first name? (87) When is a person said to be *non compos mentis?* (88) The author used a *nom de plume.* Meaning? (89) *Mark Twain* was whose *nom de plume?* (90) What is the difference between an *à-la-carte* dinner and a *table-d'hôte* dinner? Which kind do you prefer, and why? (91) Look up, mark, and pronounce correctly: *gratis, data, apricot, tomato, zoölogy, route.* (92) The boy did not *accent* the syllable properly. Mary was unable to give the right *accent.* Give the part of speech for each word, and pronounce correctly. (93) What did Booth mean when he said *Sic semper tyrannis!* What was the occasion? (94) What do these terms mean as related to usage of words: *colloquial, dialect, obsolete, archaic, rare, slang, vulgar, low?* (95) Make a list of ten slang expressions. (96) Mark the vowel in the accented syllable in each case, and then pronounce: *express, corner, coolness, goodness, scarcely, carpet, caller.* (97) What meanings do you find for these newer words: *taxicab, soviet, vitamin, movie, film, hormone, tong?* (98) Distinguish these pairs of synonyms: *foretell, predict; skillful, expert; allow, permit; annual, yearly.* (99) Should we use *height* or *altitude* in speaking of the clouds? (100) What is the first word in Webster's Secondary School Dictionary, general vocabulary? The last word? (101) Arrange the following words alphabetically: *quinine, receipt, hallucination, faction, torpedo, citizen, sirocco, dialogue, duplicate, hallelujah, citadel, quarantine, influenza, Muscovite, espionage, dialect, avaricious, Zouave, tornado, mystery, influence.* (102) Learn to pronounce the words in 101 correctly, readily, and easily. (103) Use the last five words correctly in meaningful sentences. (104) Look up the root meanings of *quinine, sirocco, influenza, tornado, citizen.*

XVI. How much do you know?

Briggs Dictionary Test[1]

Based upon Webster's Secondary-School Dictionary

General Instructions: Read each question carefully, and answer each as rapidly as possible. Use the dictionary, the whole book, to find all answers to all questions, except those in Group I. Where required, write in the appropriate blank following the question the number of the page on which you found the answer.

GROUP I

Do not use the dictionary for Group I

1. Write the letters *f* to *o* inclusive in alphabetical order.
   Answer:
2. Write numbers over the five words in each of the following groups to show the order in which they would appear in the dictionary:
   A. way, cat, dog, foot, horse.
   B. many, mange, man, mane, manor.
   C. hemispheroid, hemistich, hemisphere, hemispherical, hemispheric.
3. Underline the order in which the several definitions of one word are given in the dictionary.
   A. Alphabetic order.
   B. Order in which they developed historically.
   C. Most common first, least common last.
   D. Least common first, most common last.
   E. Most recent first, oldest last.
   F. No special order.
4. Underline the correct pronunciation of *thank* and *whom.*

thăn̆k	thânk	whōōm	hwōōm
thăŋk	thânk	hōōm	hūme

Use the dictionary for Groups II–VI

[1] Teachers College, September, 1923. Used by permission of Teachers College, Columbia University.

GROUP II

The following statements are either true or false. If true, underline the word True; if false, underline the word False. Place to the right of each answer the number of the page where you found the answer.

Example; Lye is used in making soap. True False Page *415*

5. In *whortleberry* the *h* is pronounced before the *w*. True False Page . .
6. *Figurehead* should be written with a hyphen. True False Page . .
7. A change of accent for *convoy* always changes its part of speech. True False Page . .
8. *Upwards of a hundred* means "less than a hundred." True False Page . .
9. *Malagasy* should be spelled with a capital letter. True False Page . .
10. The word *curious* meaning "scrupulous" is now in good use. True False Page . .
11. The sound of ī is a diphthong. True False Page . .

GROUP III

This is a completion test. Fill in the blanks as directed.

Example: *Cadillac* is the name of an *automobile*.

12. The word *Greek* in the top margin of page 312 indicates that it is the ..... word in the ..... column of that page. The word *grippe* indicates that it is the ..... word in the ..... column.
13. There are ..... nouns in English spelled *bloom*, each derived from a different language.
14. There are ..... different meanings given of the intransitive verb *beat*.
15. A *spectacled pelican*, pictured on page 506, has a bill about ..... inches long.
16. The correct definition of *prove* in "I have bought five yoke of oxen and must go prove them," is given as number ..... in the dictionary.

17. The correct past tense of *plead* is ..... Page ....
18. The phrase *From Dan to Beersheba* is defined on page ....
19. *Michael Balfe*, an Irish ....., was born in the year ....
20. Rules for spelling certain classes of words are given in the dictionary on pages ..... and .....
21. *Kirin*, a middle ..... of Manchuria, contains ..... square miles. The city which is its ..... has a population of .....

    Underline the words with which its Chinese pronunciation most nearly rhymes; *cur in, kill in, cure in, sir in.*
22. The word *sycophant* comes from a Latin word meaning a ....., which is derived from a Greek word meaning literally a .....
23. The word *impeach* is from the Old French, which is derived from the ....., meaning to ..... , which is itself made up of ....., meaning ....., and ....., meaning ....., the latter coming from ....., meaning .....
24. Insert in each blank *cause* or one of its synonyms that expresses most exactly the meaning.

    The ..... of the wreck was a broken rail. The ..... for this was carelessness on the part of the section boss, whose ..... in life is to earn his wages as easily as possible.
25. A word preceded by || should be printed in ..... Page .....

GROUP IV

26. *To be read to pupils by the teacher:* Write after each of the following words, each one spelled as it sounds, the number of the page of the dictionary on which you found it.

    A. *sĭt′ ĭ* .....
    B. *ŏn′ ŏ rā′ rĭ ŭm* .....
    C. *năt* .....
    D. *flō′ ĕm* .....
    E. *nŏsp* .....
    F. *krĭs′ ŏ līt* .....
    G. *sŭf* .....

27. Write after each word its correct plural and the page on which you found it in the dictionary.

Word	Plural	Page
cousin-german	.....	.....
apsis	.....	.....
synthesis	.....	.....
talisman	.....	.....

28. Write after each foreign phrase in the first column the number of the English phrase in the second column that gives a correct translation.

Foreign phrases	Number	English phrases
à corps perdu	.....	1. headlong
au pied de la lettre	.....	2. the best time
abusus non tollit usum	.....	3. very well
		4. from beginning to end
		5. no argument against a proper use
		6. literally

29. Write after each word in the first column a number from the second indicating its origin.

Word	Number	Origin
fuchsia	.....	1. an Irishman
mob	.....	2. mythology
phaëton	.....	3. science
boycott	.....	4. a German
intrados	.....	5. abbreviation
		6. a chemical
		7. architecture
		8. a Frenchman

30. Write after each abbreviation its meaning.
ad int. ..... Ag. ..... A.B.F.M. .....

GROUP V

31. The suffix *ment* is added to some words to form what part of speech? Answer: ..... Page .....

32. Where in the Bible is the story of Deborah found? Answer: .....
33. Draw a circle around the word that contains a rhyme for *ô: odd, noisy, urn, saw.*
34. Copy the illustration of a lens that is a *diverging meniscus.*
35. Cross out a word to make each sentence grammatically correct.
    A. The tactics of the general was were bad. Page .....
    B. Acoustics is are taught in physics. Page ....
36. Draw a hyphen after each syllable in the following words.
    A. amplification alias
    B. Mark the main accent in each word.
37. *A.* How many correct pronunciations are there of *dahlia?* Answer: .....
    B. Which one is preferred? .....
38. Copy carefully the full pronunciation of *bloodthirsty.* .....

GROUP VI

In each of the following underline the words as directed.

39. Underline the name of the language from which the word *rick* is derived: Latin (L.), Greek (Gr.), Anglo-Saxon (AS.), French (F.).
40. Underline the words that correctly complete the sentence. *Klingsor* was a soldier, a giant, a city, a magician.
41. *A.* Underline the name of the science in which the word *cyanogen* is used: botany, chemistry, geology, physics.
    B. Underline the part of speech that *cyanogen* is: verb, adjective, noun, adverb.
42. By underlining indicate the word with which the second syllable of *inveigle* rhymes: way, we, wag, wile. Page ....
43. Draw a line through the one word of each pair that is misspelled.

dessicate	desiccate
picnicking	picnicing

Note: The teacher should have the key edition of the Briggs Test, which gives the correct answers. See Bibliography at the end of this chapter.

XVII. New ideas — new words. Words are like humans — they are born, they grow and develop, they die. Some words are long-lived, seemingly immortal, while other words have only a transitory existence. More accurately, perhaps we should say that meanings or ideas either live or die. One meaning of a word may pass away, because the social world no longer needs that particular meaning. The other meanings may persist, and will continue as long as they are live ideas which need to be clothed in words. "Ideas are born with their skins on." Ideas and words are closely related. New words are brought into use because we live in a changing world. Change is a leading characteristic of our world. Discoveries are being constantly made in the fields of science, industry, literature, business — in fact in every realm of human endeavor. In medicine, tremendous strides have been made in a quarter century, and new ideas have brought new words into the dictionary. In applied science there is literally no end to the developments, with the result that new ideas are demanding new words constantly. In the world of electricity, for example, the two decades just past have witnessed unprecedented discoveries and inventions. Witness the wonders of invention in the field of radio activity, in this connection. Invention, as related to applied science, is making the old world over, and the end no man can foresee because there really is no end. The possibilities of the future are beyond the reach of the widest imagination. The new ideas are adding new words, and the old words are taking on new meanings. Old meanings are passing away. The World War produced changes beyond our imaginations, and new words have come into existence by the dozen and score during the past decade. We cannot recall the general use of many or most of the following words fifteen years ago, several of them old words, indeed, but with new or

added meanings: *ace, bunk, cafeteria, camouflage, dictograph, caterpillar, carrier, flivver, endocrine, hormone, vitamin, kitchenette, jazz band, jitney, multigraph, novocaine, plumcot, profiteer, pacifist, gangster, porkbarrel, pulmotor, Schick test, tag day, travelogue, tong, surtax, questionnaire, Röntgenologist, Röntgenogram, policewoman, Congresswoman, overhead charges* or *expenses, pituitrin, mores, hunger strike.* Some of these look like old friends, but if you will scan the dictionary sharply you will see new meanings in every instance. Get a dictionary which has been revised within five years or less, and you will enjoy finding the new words or new meanings for old words.

Dictionaries and Dictionary Helps

1. American Book Company, New York, Cincinnati, Chicago, Boston, Atlanta — Publishers of *Webster's Secondary-School Dictionary*, 1925, price, $2.20; *Webster's Elementary School Dictionary*, 1925, price, $1.20; *Webster's Shorter School Dictionary*, 1925, price, $0.92.

This company also prints for free distribution the following dictionary helps: (1) Briggs Dictionary Tests (with answers for teachers). 1923. (2) Preparatory Dictionary Exercises based on Webster's Elementary School Dictionary. 1925. (3) Preparatory Dictionary Exercises based on Webster's Secondary-School Dictionary. 1925. (4) Twenty Tests of a Small Dictionary for Schools. (5) The Use of the Dictionary — Strong. 1928. 45 pages, price, $0.30.

2. Ballentine, W. G. — *How to Use the Dictionary;* The Grayson Press, Menomonie, Wisconsin. 1924. A useful 22-page booklet, for teacher and pupil, sent postpaid for $0.35.

3. Collier, P. F., and Son Company, New York City — Publishers of *Century Unabridged Dictionary*, in three large volumes of the latest edition. 1927.

4. Funk and Wagnalls, New York City — Publishers of *New*

Standard Unabridged and Smaller Dictionaries, which have recently been revised. This company publishes the following series of Standard Dictionaries:

Unabridged Standard Dictionary. 1927.
Practical or College Standard Dictionary. 1928.
Desk or High School Standard Dictionary. 1928.
Comprehensive Standard Dictionary. 1928.
Concise Standard Dictionary. 1928.
Vest Pocket Standard Dictionary. 1926.

5. Merriam, G. and C., Company, Springfield, Massachusetts, publishers of the genuine *Webster Dictionaries*.

Webster's New International, 1928; price, $20.00.
Webster's Collegiate, 1925; price, $5.00

This company also publishes the following very useful free dictionary helps of which teachers should avail themselves:

(1) A Curious Couple (A pronunciation test).
(2) A Visit to the Deering High School (A pronunciation test).
(3) The Americanization of Carver (A pronunciation test).
(4) The Value of the Dictionary in the Schoolroom. (Briggs)
(5) The Value of the Dictionary. (Powell)
(6) Answers All Kinds of Questions.
(7) Only One in Six. (Wooster)
(8) Suggestions on Use of Dictionary.
(9) The Dictionary Habit. (Cody)
(10) Unlocks the Door. (Ellis)
(11) Dog-Day Club. (Gould)
(12) What Fun to Play Merriam Dictionary Games. (Stitt)

6. Rice, O. S. — *Lessons on the Use of Books and Libraries;* Rand, McNally and Company. 1920. This is the most useful volume on books and libraries for rural teachers with which the writer is acquainted. There are four series of exercises on the use of the dictionary, comprising many lessons. This book should be in every rural school library in the United States.

7. Salisbury, Albert—*Orthoepy and Phonology;* Row, Peterson and Company, Chicago. 1907. This is an old standard work on phonetics. Most of the material can be found in the Webster

dictionaries. For a teacher who is especially interested in orthoepy and phonology, this book will prove valuable.

8. WINSTON, THE JOHN C., COMPANY, Philadelphia, Chicago, Atlanta, Dallas, San Francisco, Toronto, publishers of *The Winston Simplified Dictionaries, Elementary and Advanced Editions, Copyright, 1926.* The advanced edition, which sells for $2.40, is a useful dictionary to have in school or home. It corresponds to Webster's Collegiate, although not so complete a dictionary. It is somewhat more complete than the Webster Secondary-School Dictionary.

Note: Many language books, especially the more recent ones, contain lessons on the use of the dictionary. Among these are the following:

(1) SCOTT, ZENOS E., CONGDON, RANDOLPH T., PEET, HARRIET E., AND FRAZEE, LAURA — *Open Door Language Series;* Houghton Mifflin Company, New York and Chicago.
(2) JESCHKE, H. J., POTTER, M. C., GILLET, H. O. — *Better English;* Ginn and Company, New York and Chicago.
(3) LEE, ARTHUR, REED, ALONZO, KELLOGG, BRAINERD — *Lessons in English;* Charles E. Merrill Company. New York and Chicago.
(4) TAYLOR, JOSEPH S. — *Word Study in the Elementary School;* Educational Publishing Corporation, Boston.
(5) PEARSON, H. C., AND KIRCHWEY, MARY FREDERIKA — *Essentials of English;* American Book Company. New York and Chicago.

Teachers may also consult profitably the following general books, each containing some material on dictionary procedures.

(6) BRIGGS, T. H., AND COFFMAN, L. D. — *Reading in Public Schools;* Row, Peterson and Company. Evanston, Ill.
(7) KLAPPER, PAUL — *Teaching Children to Read;* D. Appleton and Company, New York.
(8) SUZZALO, HENRY — *The Teaching of Spelling;* Houghton Mifflin Company, New York and Chicago.

CHAPTER XIV

LEARNING TO USE THE LIBRARY

I. Learning to read and reading to learn. It is one thing to teach boys and girls how to read, but it is an altogether different and more difficult problem to cultivate a taste for good reading so that a lifelong interest in good books will be the permanent result of school experience. The rural teacher who succeeds in fixing the habit of using the books of the library as a daily practice is doing probably one of the greatest services that can be rendered really to educate the child. Any person who has fixed the habit of reading good books has at hand not only the means of training the mind and storing it with useful information, but also a source of the highest inspiration and enjoyment. The library, if it is a well-selected one, can easily become the most valuable part of the school equipment. No child can truly be said even to be started on the highway of education unless there has been developed a love of good reading.

In literature, geography, history, and other subjects, the textbook merely gives the skeleton outline of facts, which needs to be filled out with the flesh and blood of detailed narrative and description, such as will be found in books in the library. The teacher should aim to form the student habit of going to the library for both information and pleasure. If the child has the reference-book and library habit, just as he should have the dictionary habit, he possesses the means for furthering his own education through-

out life. The library furnishes one of the best opportunities for coöperation of school and home. The library should be used by the other folks at home as well as by the school children. Through her pupils the teacher can often interest the parents in good reading. If she will see to it that the people of the district know of the good books in the library, and if the children take home books of various kinds, it is possible in this way to get some people to read who have never read much before. It is a sad fact that most adults do not care to read largely because they were not properly trained in reading as children.

II. Reference books.[1] The list of reference books below is suggestive of what may be purchased, when practicable. These books will be used mostly by pupils in sixth, seventh, and eighth grades. By having at hand these reference books, school work will be much facilitated, and pupils will be learning how to use reference sources which they should use after they leave school. Most schools may not be able to secure all of them, but each can make a beginning and then add to the list from year to year.

State Blue Book or *Red Book*, or by whatever other special name it may be designated in the state. This book is usually sent free to each school.

Year Book of United States Department of Agriculture. Send to the Department of Agriculture or to your Congressman for a copy each year.

Statistical Abstract of United States. Issued annually by the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce of the United States Department of Commerce. If a free copy cannot be secured, it can be had for fifty cents from the Superintendent of Public Documents, Washington, D. C. Order the revised edition each year.

[1] The author acknowledges his indebtedness to the Wisconsin State Department of Education.

Congressional Directory. Send for it in December each year. If a free copy cannot be secured from your Congressman, send sixty cents for a copy to the Superintendent of Public Documents.

Farmers' Bulletins issued by U. S. Department of Agriculture. Send for a few of the most useful for your locality, selecting from a list of bulletins which you can secure on application to the Department of Agriculture. Similar bulletins issued by the Agricultural College of your state university should be sent for.

A number of *Webster Elementary School Dictionaries; Winston Simplified Dictionaries,* Elementary Edition; or, *Comprehensive Standard Dictionaries.*

A number of *Webster Secondary-School Dictionaries; Winston Simplified Dictionaries,* Advanced Edition; or, *High School Standard Dictionaries.*

The World Almanac, published by the New York *World,* or the *Daily News Almanac,* published by the Chicago *Daily News,* contain a vast amount of useful statistical material. A new edition is issued early in each year.

A book of quotations. Probably the one most commonly used is *Bartlett's Familiar Quotations,* by John Bartlett, revised and enlarged, published by Little, Brown and Company, Boston. Price $5.00.

Champlin's Cyclopedias, by J. D. Champlin, published by Henry Holt and Company, selling for $3.00 to $5.00 each, should be found in every rural school.

The series comprises the following:

Champlin's Cyclopedia of Common Things.
Champlin's Cyclopedia of Persons and Places.
Champlin's Cyclopedia of Literature and Art.
Champlin's Cyclopedia of Natural History.
Champlin's New Cyclopedia of Places and Events.
Champlin's New Cyclopedia of Persons.

An up-to-date, comprehensive Atlas.

Webster's New International Dictionary; or *The New Standard Unabridged Dictionary.*

An up-to-date general cyclopedia, usually of about ten volumes.

Probably the two best on the market at the present time for rural schools are *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, published by F. E. Compton and Company, Chicago, and *The World Book*, published by W. F. Quarrie and Company, Chicago. Each set, consisting of ten volumes, sells for about $60.00. W. F. Quarrie and Company have just published a new twelve-volume encyclopedia this year, 1930. It is called *The World Book Encyclopedia*, but is an entirely rewritten reference work, with many more illustrations, and much new material of all kinds. Teachers should send to W. F. Quarrie and Company, Chicago, for free forty-page illustrated descriptive book.

Who's Who in America, issued in revised form every even-numbered year by A. N. Marquis and Company, Chicago. Short accounts of over twenty thousand living Americans of note.

Robert, H. M. — *Robert's Rules of Order for Deliberative Assemblies;* Scott, Foresman and Company, Chicago, $1.50.

Periodicals

Among the good magazines for rural schools are the following:

American Childhood — $3.00; Milton Bradley Company, New York.

American Girl, The — $1.50; published by Girl Scouts, Inc., New York.

Bird Lore — $1.50; D. Appleton and Company, New York and Harrisburg, Pa.

Boys' Life — $2.00; published by the Boy Scouts of America, 2 Park Ave., New York.

Child Life — The Children's Own Magazine — $3.00; Rand, McNally and Company, Chicago.

Country Gentleman, The — $1.00; Curtis Publishing Company, Philadelphia.

Current Events — $.60; American Education Press, Inc., New York and Columbus.

Farmer's Wife, The — $.50; Webb Publishing Company, St. Paul.

Hoard's Dairyman — $1.00; W. D. Hoard Company, Ft. Atkinson, Wisconsin.

Hygeia — $3.00; American Medical Association, Chicago.

John Martin's Book — $5.00; John Martin's House, Inc., New York.

Junior Home Magazine and Little Folks — $2.50; Junior Home Magazine, Inc., Chicago.

Junior Red Cross News — $.50; American Junior Red Cross, Washington, D. C.

National Geographic Magazine, The — $4.00; National Geographic Society, Washington, D. C.

Nature Magazine — $3.00; American Nature Association, Washington, D. C.

Our Dumb Animals — $1.00; Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, Boston.

Pathfinder, The — $1.00; Pathfinder Publishing Company, Washington, D. C.

Popular Mechanics Magazine — $2.50; Popular Mechanics Company, Chicago.

St. Nicholas — $4.00; The Century Company, New York.

The Youth's Companion combined with the American Boy — $2.00; Sprague Publishing Company, Detroit. (After one hundred years of continuous weekly publication, *The Youth's Companion* no longer exists as a separate magazine.)

III. Traveling libraries. In connection with this chapter the reader will find an illustration of a country school in which the teacher was enterprising enough to secure two traveling libraries for the use of her pupils and the older people of the district who cared to read. One of these boxes was sent by parcel post to this school by the State Library Commission and the other came from a near-by city library in Edgerton, Wisconsin. These boxes each contained some fifty to sixty books and they were kept about three months. The teacher had a good deal to do with

Courtesy of Ethel E. Walker, Teacher

Friday afternoon in country schoolroom

The school society is in session. The traveling library boxes are from the state library commission and from a near-by city library.

the selection of the books, and there were both entertaining and instructive volumes for all ages and grades. When the box of books is received, there is an accompanying list, giving titles and authors. The teacher makes hectographed copies of this list and sends one to each family of the district. In some rural districts a considerable number of adults draw out and read books, but this is the exception rather than the rule everywhere. Many rural teachers have derived much pleasure and profit from these traveling libraries. Where it is possible to get one, the teacher should do so. The cost is slight compared with the benefit received.

IV. Book wisdom. It is unfortunately true that large numbers of rural teachers are not themselves good silent readers or lovers of books; neither do they possess very much of either book knowledge or book wisdom. Such teachers are not, in the nature of the case, very likely to inspire boys and girls to want to know books or to read for the sheer pleasure of reading. In this particular paragraph the writer refers especially to ideas about the general make-up of books, such as cover, table of contents, title page, index, and the rest. Children should be taught how to handle books, and, in general, they should learn to treat a book as a friend. So obvious and simple a matter as the color of the cover is one which many people wholly ignore. Children can be trained to associate certain types of subject matter with certain authors and also with books of a special kind of construction, color of cover, and other details. Pupils need definite instruction on such matters as how to open a book, how to turn the leaves, how to mark the place, how to set the book on the shelf, never to handle a book with dirty hands, and the like. The possibility of a book as a carrier of disease should also be impressed upon children, although

this is not as serious a menace as some people imagine. See Rice's *Lessons on Use of Books and Libraries.*

V. Library readings. As part of her schedule of regular activities the rural teacher can render no greater service to boys and girls than to require them to read suitable books throughout the year. The best way to do this is to make

Courtesy of Ora L. Haas, Teacher

Reading for pleasure and profit

A common scene in a good country school.

out a complete schedule for the entire year, naming the pupils and the books they are to read, together with the dates on which oral or written reports are to be made. Some teachers now use little envelopes, one for each child, fastened to mounting or bristol board. Each envelope contains the child's reading record and often an honor system is used in connection with the envelopes, repre-

sented by gold and silver stars. Children like this graphic indication of their achievements; the same idea can be used in other fields of school work. In most states suitable books for each grade are specified by some central authority; teachers should always avail themselves of such lists and keep pupils reading during the entire year. Some of the

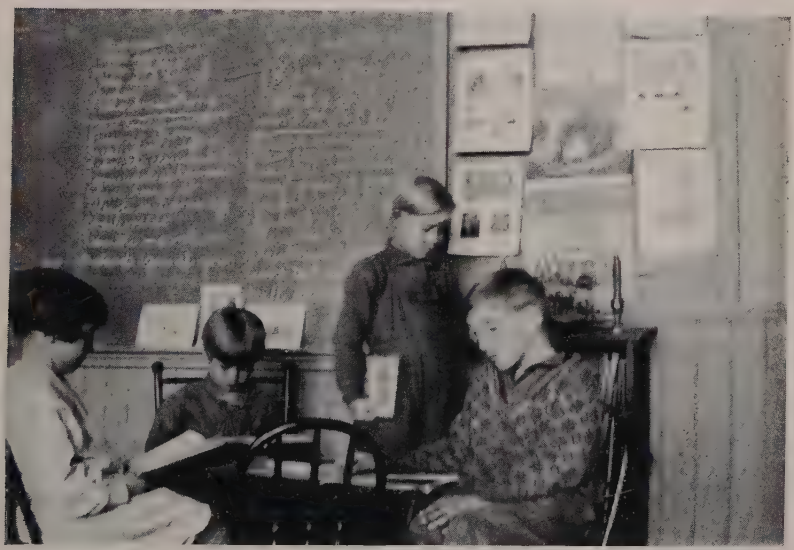
Courtesy of Ora L. Haas, Teacher

Country school pupils at reading table

They are enjoying some of the beautiful and attractive books for school children.

readings are entirely for personal pleasure — very properly so — others are in the nature of collateral or supplementary material, related to history, geography, and other subjects. Any rural-school program that leaves out library readings is seriously lacking in a type of training which has much to do with a child's happiness and personal achievement and progress.

VI. Book reports. In many states there are now young people's reading circles either under the management of the state department of education or conducted under other auspices; but whether there exists such a satisfactory state of affairs or not, the rural teacher may have approved reading lists for different grades, and regular book reports, oral



Courtesy of Ora L. Haas, Teacher

Reading corner in a country school

and written. Even first-grade pupils can tell something about the books they read; and as progress is made through the grades, more and more can and should be required of the pupil in the way of a report. Such reports should never be made in mechanical, formal fashion; while an outline may be prescribed for the pupil's use in upper grades, much freedom should be allowed for the expression of individuality. As soon as pupils are old enough, they can be taught to note

such things as full title, name of author, date when issued, and perhaps name of publisher. In giving reports pupils should increasingly be taught to get as complete a grasp of the contents as possible. There should be a summary of the general nature of the book, together with more detailed report upon selected portions. Children should be trained to express their opinions about what they read and to note in particular those elements of the book which are unusually clear, or strong, or beautiful. Pupils should be taught to note and to appreciate the illustrations also.

VII. Score card for rural libraries. The following questions will aid the rural teacher in getting a more adequate idea of whether or not her library is up to certain well-recognized standards, providing she takes the necessary steps to see that the questions are properly answered:

(1) Is there a well-built, attractive library case with glass doors and an abundance of shelf room?

(2) Are the books well arranged on the shelves — with reference to subjects and the various grades? Such grouping of books in the case will greatly promote a more effective use of the library.

(3) Is there an up-to-date catalog of all the books in the school — subject and author cards, and a growing number of subject-analytic cards? New cards must be added as soon as needed and old ones discarded when they no longer function.

(4) Is there a modern case for the card catalog in a place easily accessible to teacher and pupils?

(5) Is there a well-bound accession book in which every book is listed, giving author, title, cost, and date of purchase?

(6) Are all of the books carefully labeled with slips giving accession number and library regulations for the care and use of books?

(7) Are the books thoroughly classified according to the standards of the state, then shelf-numbered and arranged systematically on the shelves?

(8) Is the library adequate in all respects, containing books for all ages and grades, as well as a sufficient number of references in subjects like geography, agriculture, history, health and hygiene, and citizenship?

(9) Is there, especially, plenty of supplementary reading books, including the best story books for the first four grades?

(10) Is there material on hand for mending books, such as glue, linen strips, transparent mending tissue, and are books kept in good repair?

(11) Are pupils trained regularly and systematically in the use of books?

(12) Is there a pupil librarian to assist the teacher in caring for the library, in loaning books, and, in general, in seeing that all is done as it should be so far as the library is concerned?

VIII. Library committee. If there are upper-grade pupils, one or more of them may be appointed to take care of the books and the bookcase. This is good training for the children, and the service will be a distinct help to the teacher. The committee should keep books and shelves well dusted all of the time; and they can be taught to arrange the books in a certain order and to see that other pupils leave books in place after using them. This committee can also assist the teacher in making out analytic cards or reference lists upon topics in history, geography, and other subjects. For example, an eighth-grade girl could readily be taught how to arrange a page-reference list for the fifth- and sixth-grade class on such subjects as *wheat, coal, Revolutionary War, Lincoln, Benjamin Franklin.*

IX. Subject-analytic cards. In many rural schools the library books are not used nearly as much as they might be if teacher and pupils made use of a more effective procedure. In such subjects as history, geography, and agriculture, the resources of the library should be made available

in supplementing the text. This can best be done by making out a set of page-reference cards on the subject under consideration. As many cards should be made out as there are books and bulletins bearing on the particular topic. No good source should be overlooked.

For example, if the agriculture class is studying corn, perhaps a dozen cards can be prepared which pupils may use in guiding their collateral readings. At first the teacher will need to write out these cards herself, but it is entirely possible to teach and train upper-grade pupils to assist in this profitable sort of seat work also. In making the cards, teacher and class should be guided and directed by the index and the table of contents. With practice it will be found that a rather full and useful set of cards can be made with increasing effectiveness and in a decreasing amount of time. Cards on such subjects as *horses*, *soil*, *coffee*, *lakes*, *Brazil*, *climate*, *seeds*, *teeth*, *sheep*, *chickens* will prove to be useful for teacher and pupils.

X. Classify and catalog. Many a rural school library is relatively useless because the books have never been properly cataloged and arranged on the shelves. In most states instruction concerning libraries is now sent out from the state department of education, and almost any rural teacher can learn how to take care of her books according to modern standards. Such terms as the following are now quite familiar to the majority of rural teachers in America: *accessioning*, *classification*, *call numbers*, *inventory*, *shelf arrangement*, *charging system*, *card catalog*, *catalog cards*, *author card*, *title card*, *main card*, *subject card*, *subject-analytic card*, *author-analytic card*, *title-analytic card*, *cross-reference cards*. The books on the shelves should be so arranged that teacher and pupils can readily find what is wanted. No time should be wasted in searching for books.

+ 918	Pike,	Henry Lee Mitchell
Pi		Our little Panama cousin. 1906.

1. *Author card or main card*

+ 918		Our little Panama cousin.
Pi	Pike,	H. L. M.

2. *Title card*

+ 918		Panama
Pi	Pike,	H. L. M.
		Our little Panama cousin.

3. *Subject card*

+ 918		Child life
Pi	Pike,	H. L. M.
		Our little Panama cousin.

4. *Subject card*

+ 918		Pirates
Pi	Pike,	H. L. M.
		Our little Panama cousin, pp. 36–59.

5. *Subject-analytic card*

SAMPLES FROM A CARD INDEX[1] *a*

[1] Wisconsin School Libraries — State Department of Education.

+ 918		Panama canal
Pi	Pike,	H. L. M.
		Our little Panama cousin, pp. 76–89.

6. *Subject-analytic card*

+ 918		Balboa, Vasco Nuñez de
Pi	Pike,	H. L. M.
		Our little Panama cousin, pp. 90–95.

7. *Subject-analytic card*

+ 973.7		Famous adventures and prison escapes of the Civil War.
Fa	1890	

8. *Title card as main card*

+ 811.8	Scoll	ard, Clinton, ed.
Sc		Ballads of American bravery. 1900.

9. *Main card under editor*

Pseudonym (pseud.) and compiler (comp.) are written in the same position on the card as editor (ed.)

+ 590	Irving,	Washington
Jo		The bobolink. (in Jordan, D. S. ed. True
	tales	of birds and beasts, pp. 20–26)

10. *Author-analytic card*

Note that this card indicates that the *author* is represented by a certain selection on certain pages.

SAMPLES FROM A CARD INDEX *b*

The second-grade class should be able to find their books readily, and the eighth-grade agriculture class, for example, should also have their books grouped for easy reference.

XI. Suggestions summarized.

1. During the first week of school go through your library to find out what you have. You will doubtless make some interesting discoveries.

2. Begin at once to classify and arrange your books in order on the shelves for quick and easy reference.

3. Make out and post up the classification scheme of your library, for your own reference as well as for the use of the pupils. This tabulation may also indicate the shelf arrangement, if thought best.

4. Place books for smaller pupils on lower shelves so they can reach them readily. There should be many good books for children in the lower grades.

5. Make out lists of references on certain subjects, as the weeks go by, and have these posted on your bulletin board, or kept where they can be referred to as needed. Teach the older pupils to do this also.

6. Make a complete accession list of all books belonging to the school early in the fall, if one has not been made before. If there is already a complete list of books, use it as a checking list to find out what books are missing. Make an effort to discover such books as soon as possible.

7. Try to make your library serve the adults of the district to some extent, if possible. If you secure a traveling library, see that each family gets a list of the fifty or more books in the box. If your state has such traveling libraries, be sure to get one.

8. Check over your card catalog, and if it contains cards that no longer function because the books are missing or worn out, destroy such cards. Be sure to make out

fresh cards for all your new books soon after the books are received.

9. Make an effort to add as many subject-analytic cards to your catalog as you can, for such cards will surely increase the usefulness of your library.

10. Old, dilapidated books should either be rebound or destroyed, as a rule. Some of the pages of old books, such as illustrated readers, geographies, histories, etc., can be cut out, trimmed neatly, and pasted on manila cards of suitable size for useful silent reading material.

Class Discussion Questions

1. Make a list of one hundred books for the beginning library of a rural school. Consult your own state lists.

2. Go to some good library and make a dozen page-reference, subject-analytic cards on the subject of *radio*, or some other topic in which you are interested.

3. Can you get a traveling library in your state? If so, how do you go about it? Make out a list of fifty good books for the adult people of your district.

4. Which of the reference books listed in this chapter do you have in your school? Which ones would you like to get?

5. State all things which a pupil should know concerning the care of books, such as how to open, how to set on shelf, and the like.

6. Try to name the titles and authors of the textbooks you used in high school. Why is your list so short?

7. Make out a library reading schedule for twelve pupils in the four upper grades of a country school. Each one is to read six books during the year.

8. Make an outline for a book report on Wyss's *Swiss Family Robinson*. It is to be an oral report to take about ten minutes.

9. What do you think are the principal points which should be touched upon in a book report? Write such a list. How can the report be made truly individual? Why should it be?

10. Make out a library score card of exactly ten points which would go on a card about 3½ by 7 inches. Use such terms as *case, cards, shelves, labels,* etc. Make the total 100 points.

11. What is the difference between a *subject* card and a *subject-analytic* card? What is the *call* number? What is it to *accession* a book? Where is the *shelf* number placed? The *call* number?

12. Send for sample copies of some of the periodicals listed in the text. In some cases you may have to pay. Why not include the *Atlantic Monthly, Century,* or *Harper's* for country schools?

Useful Supplementary Readings

1. A. L. A. Book List. — This is a very reliable list used by librarians everywhere, and published by the American Library Association.

2. Almack, J. C., and Lang, A. R. — *The Beginning Teacher;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1928.

3. Barnes, Ina — *Rural School Management;* The Macmillan Company. 1923.

4. *Book Review Digest.* — You should ask your librarian about this digest and also about the *United States Catalog* and the *Cumulative Book Index.*

5. Cutler, H. M., and Stone, Julia C. — *The Rural School — Its Methods and Management;* Silver, Burdett and Company. 1913.

6. Lombard, Ellen C. — *Teachers' and Pupils' Reading Circle;* Home Education Circular, No. 7, March, 1925, Bureau of Education. Price 5¢.

7. Rice, O. S. — *Lessons on the Use of Books and Libraries;* Rand, McNally and Company. 1920. This book should be in every rural school library.

8. Williams, Grace C. — *The Little Book Shelf;* Rand, McNally and Company. 1924.

9. Wilson Company, H. W. — Teachers may write to this company for lists of books and magazines and for advertising

literature concerning library accessories. The address is 958–972 University Avenue, New York City.

10. Woofter, J. H. — *Teaching in Rural Schools;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1917.

11. Zachert, Adeline B. — "Classroom Libraries"; *Library Journal*, vol. 49, pp. 877–880. (October, 1924.)

CHAPTER XV

EDUCATIVE SEAT ACTIVITIES

I. Seat work *vs.* busy work. The new nomenclature indicates the change of aim or point of view, as well as a change of procedure, in keeping with modern educational standards. The term *busy work* is now in considerable disrepute, and the phrase *educative seat work* represents a more enlightened practice relative to the between-recitation activities of pupils in the elementary school. It is clearly not enough merely to keep children busy and out of mischief, though to be sure that is better than disorder; seat-work activities should be definitely related to the recitation and to the aims and the content of the course of study. It is easy to find an abundance of busy-work material; however, much of it in the past has had little or no educational value.

II. Rural school conditions and needs. No school has greater need for profitable educational seat work than the rural school. No teacher needs to understand the objectives, principles, and procedures of seat work more than a rural teacher. Consider a rural school of eight grades with some twenty-five recitations. If the teacher emphasizes recitation rather than study, the situation is an impossible one. If, however, the teacher looks upon the recitation as a means, in part at least, of preparing the pupil for work at his seat, the change of viewpoint will result in great gain to both teacher and pupil. A knowledge of the technique of study is worth much more to any teacher than a knowl-

edge of recitation procedure. Educative seat work is study, whether books are used or not. We are but beginning to see the possibilities and the infinite variety of activities involved in real study.

If the center of rural school work were transferred from the recitation period to the seat work of the pupils, and if the recitation were for study rather than study for the recitation, the increased educational advantages would soon become apparent. In the average rural school the smaller pupils are in the majority; yet they get but a fraction of the teacher's time so far as recitation is concerned. These children are greatly in need of profitable activities at their seats. And not only do primary pupils need a change of emphasis and of procedure, but likewise the older ones. In agriculture, history, and reading at least one half of all the recitation time is wasted because the testing procedure predominates and because pupils are not taught how to attack and to solve problems by themselves. There is much work in agriculture, history, reading, physiology, civics, and other subjects which is adapted to study, or seat-work, procedures, rather than to recitation.

III. Objectives in seat work.[1] We are beginning to learn that the work of teaching does not consist merely of hearing recitations. The modern successful teacher plans work which will fill a child's life with happy, helpful, active participation and purposeful endeavor. She must provide work for idle times which will help the child to form habits of industry and perseverance. The seat-work program must not be a mere list of devices for maintaining a quiet schoolroom. It must furnish thoughtful provision for actual needs of children. Every exercise in seat work should secure one of these results: (1) It should make the lesson clearer, or else (2) afford practice in some line of work where skill is required.

[1] These paragraphs appeared in some valuable mimeographed material prepared by Miss Elda L. Merton, city grade supervisor, Waukesha, Wisconsin.

If work requires neither thought nor effort, it is dull and profitless, and should be omitted. In order to keep a child interested there must be variety. Watch a child at play and you will find that he does not like to play with one thing long at a time. Put the plaything away for a time and it will seem almost new to him when he takes it up again.

Elda L. Merton, to whom the author is indebted for the above paragraph, says elsewhere, in writing of the purpose of seat work:

While the teacher is conducting a recitation the other children in the room work by themselves. This means that for a great share of the day each child must work independently. Too few realize that seat work is as important as recitation, more important, in fact, for at his seat the child is left to his own resources. The habits of study formed in these early years will certainly either help or hinder his future progress as a student. Children, when left to themselves, will naturally follow the path of least resistance, and that is not the path of analytic, systematic study. The teacher then will need to teach the pupils how to set themselves tasks. If the recitation has been well conducted, it is a simple matter to stimulate in the children a motive for carrying forward at their seats some of the projects suggested in class. Seat work is also assigned so that children may acquire habits of neatness and accuracy. Little children come to school with a native capacity for keeping busy at something. The business of the school is to utilize this instinctive tendency so that purposeful and useful work will be the outcome.

IV. Basic educational principles. The underlying educational principles upon which seat work is based have been well stated in the following language by some person unknown to the author. In a general way, it may be said that the work must be definitely related to the grade work and to the curriculum. Its selection must be governed by

the same educational principles or standards as govern the selection of subject matter:

1. Child nature demands activity and variety. Although the seat work is to be varied the purpose must remain constant.
2. The child's instincts, such as those of play, curiosity, competition, and construction, together with his strong imagination, offer abundant suggestions for obtaining material and for methods of using it.
3. Child activity and experience must suggest, in large measure, the source of material to be used.
4. The work must interest the child and hold his attention by being definite, clear, and worth while.
5. It must aid the pupils in gaining power and skill in acquiring knowledge by independent, unaided study.
6. Pupils should know the purpose of the seat work they do.
7. The seat work must call for real study and not be mere "busy work." It should demand little or no writing in the lower grades.
8. Pupils should be required to work rapidly and to do work neatly and accurately.
9. The work needs to be carefully and definitely planned, and clear directions for use should accompany all work assigned.
10. The intelligent use of seat work necessitates clear understanding of the basic educational principles.

V. Tests of educational seat work. The following tests, as Miss Merton states, need to be applied to any given kind of seat work in order to discover whether or not it has educational value. Seat work should grow naturally out of the lessons. If it is the logical outcome of the recitation, it then becomes one measure of the child's ability:

1. Seat work should utilize the combined energy of head and hand. If the child's head ceases to function, then the seat work no longer has educational value, but is, on the

contrary, purely mechanical, perfunctory, and relatively useless. What, then, shall we say of the common practices of sorting number, letter, and word cards, and the aimless laying of pegs, splints, and the like?

2. It must be work which can be done independently of the teacher, without supervision. It should be of such nature as to require the least amount of time on the part of the teacher.

3. Opportunity must be offered for the children to be active, both mentally and physically. The children need to feel that they are doing something and that they are getting results.

4. The seat work must present a problem within the ability of the individual child.

5. It must afford sufficient variety to secure interest and hold attention.

6. The period of concentration must not be too long.

7. The work should excite pride in the ability to begin and complete a task without help, so that the child may feel the moral uplift of successful, independent accomplishment.

8. The problem should require the child to compare, to judge, and to state his conclusions — but upon the level of his grade.

9. The result should show an actual expression of the child's powers.

10. The work should be such as to lead children into good habits of class work. For example, the building of sentences with letter and word cards tends to emphasize words rather than word groups, and should not be practiced exclusively. Some of this work for variety is not objectionable.

11. Educational seat work, when properly carried out, shows progress in the character of the problems, and like-

wise progress in the child's power to attack problems successfully.

12. Good seat work offers a genuine motive for the child.

The use of these tests, which are naturally objectives, as well, will enable the teacher to judge her work rationally.

VI. Classes of seat work. One of the most suggestive and helpful little books on *Educative Seat Work* is by Dr. Fannie W. Dunn, Teachers College, Columbia University, Department of Rural Education. It may be secured from the State Normal School for Women, Farmville, Virginia, for 40¢ postpaid. The table of contents of this helpful booklet is so suggestive that it is printed here. The reader will note some classification of seat-work activities in this list:

Projects involving much constructive activity

A doll house
Playing store
Sand-table projects
Scrapbooks
Buying furniture for the doll house
Homes in other lands or other days
Posters and charts
Booklets

Smaller projects — handwork and drawing

Weaving
Paper cutting
Paper folding
Wood-block printing
Spool knitting
Bead necklaces
Wall paper, linoleum, tiling
Free-hand drawing
Clay modeling
Basketry
Sewing
Jointed toys

Reading as seat occupation

Books for very small children
Books for grades one, two, three
Drill exercises
Books for beginners
Using books in primary grades
A phonic series

Writing as seat work

Blackboard work	Writing at desk or table

Number as seat work

Exercises not involving figures	Exercises involving figures
Exercises involving use of ruler	A number series

Play as between-recitation occupation

To the above list may possibly be added seat-work activities in language although these are probably considered as a part of reading. In the average rural school seat work for the four lower grades should center around and correlate with the work in reading, number, language, and general construction, or form work.

VII. Some necessary equipment. In April, 1922, the Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., issued *Rural School Leaflet No. 3*, prepared by Maud C. Newbury, and entitled "Modern Equipment for One-Teacher Schools." In one place in this bulletin Miss Newbury writes as follows:

> Quite as necessary is a liberal supply of seat-work material for little children. Too frequently in the past and sometimes even to-day teachers have required of children the copying of pages from their reading books in order to fill in their time. This is a wrong practice for first-grade children, because they have not yet learned to write. To attempt it without any help from the teacher, who is busy teaching other classes, results in their learning to write poorly and in their forming the habit of beginning sentences, proper names, etc., with small letters. Great waste of time is involved in breaking such habits.
>
> Yet little children cannot be expected to sit for three or four hours doing nothing. They may learn to hate school or come to enjoy idling. It is just as much the business of education to conserve and guide the child's desire for activity and form habits of industry, as it is to teach children the facts of multiplication.

Making from paper a toy wagon, an illustrated alphabet booklet, doll furniture, a Halloween Jack o'Lantern, or other objects in which the children naturally are interested teaches them a sense of proportion, the use of a foot ruler, the meaning of half- and quarter-inch, skill in using tools, and joy in accomplishment. But construction paper, scissors, crayolas, inexpensive compasses, and rulers are needed for such work.

A hectograph and a small printing outfit should be part of the equipment of a one-teacher school. The hectograph will prove invaluable in providing patterns for seat work, in making copies of interesting reading material for primary grades, copies of poems for all grades, and in duplicating assignments for pupils. The printing outfit will serve to prepare reading charts, notices, material for drill, and seat-work material.

The following items of equipment may be considered necessities as related to seat work: kindergarten table with chairs, hectograph, bulletin board, compasses, boxes of crayola, foot rules and yardsticks, scissors, colored construction paper, plain construction paper, modeling clay, phonic builders, sentence builders, number builders, picture and word matchers, chip board (27 × 19 inches), oak tag, 9 × 12 inches, printing outfit, paper cutter, beads, seeds, sewing cards, carbon paper (the large sheets for pencil), cardboard, patterns of leaves, flowers, familiar objects, conventional designs, weaving mats, paper money, spoolknitter, clock dial, parquetry blocks, old magazines with good pictures for making picture books, paste, mucilage, glue.

Miss Dunn gives the following recipe for library paste: 1 cup of flour, 1 quart of water, 1 tablespoonful alum, 10 drops of oil of cloves. Bring water and alum to boiling point, add flour mixed with water to form a smooth paste, and boil in double boiler for 20 minutes. Add the oil of cloves and strain.

The Teachers College Bulletin entitled *Educative Equipment for Rural Schools* by Dr. Fannie W. Dunn may be obtained for 30¢ by writing to Teachers College, Columbia University, 525 West 120th Street, New York City.

VIII. Homemade hectograph. A hectograph for duplicating work of all sorts is almost a necessity, and the teacher who has learned to use one appreciates the value of it and will not want to be without it.

Carbon paper can be used as a substitute if one does not need to make many copies. Buy the heavy carbon paper in large sheets, not the kind used on typewriters.

For the teacher who cares to make a hectograph for herself this recipe is given.[1] The amount is sufficient to fill a pan 9 inches by 12 inches and three fourths of an inch deep:

Two ounces of gelatin in sheets; one pint of glycerin. Put into a double boiler and cook slowly for two hours; pour into the pan and allow to cool. It takes about three hours to cool sufficiently to be in condition to use.

Wash off with sponge and lukewarm water before and after using. The copy should be written with hectograph ink, which one can secure from any school-supply house, on paper having a smooth surface. Lay the copy, face down, on the gelatin slab, and leave for about two minutes. In making the duplicates the paper is smoothed over the surface and removed immediately.

Many rural teachers have printed very creditable school papers on hectographs. See Chapter IV. You can purchase ready-made hectographs with from one to four printing surfaces, of varying sizes, for prices ranging from $4.00 to $10.00.

IX. Seat work on reading. The author is indebted to Miss Isobel Davidson, formerly of the State Department of Public Instruction, Wisconsin, for the following list of seat-work activities in reading for primary grades.[2]

[1] The author does not know to whom to give credit for this recipe. See directions in chapter on School Paper, also.

[2] Miss Davidson has given permission to use these suggestions in this chapter.

The *aim* of this seat work in reading is to train the child in *how to study* reading. Independence on the part of the pupil is the desired end and goal. In the primary grades the needs and capacities of children demand work which will aid in the growth of the vocabulary, and in the ability to get thought from the printed page with ease. Seat work, then, should emphasize both form and thought content through word study and simple problems based upon the lesson material, using handwork as a necessary and useful agent when words and ideas can be strengthened thereby. The work resolves itself into two distinct phases: *A.* Word Study; *B.* Thought Content.

FIRST GRADE

A. Word Study —

1. Illustrative handwork whenever the occasion offers fruitful results, such as:
   a. Modeling — squirrel, etc.
   b. Cutting — baby's playthings, etc.
   c. Drawing — Little Red Hen, etc.
   d. Folding — barn for the horse, etc.
   e. Sticklaying — forest and home of the Three Bears, etc.
2. Making pictures with corn, or other seeds.
3. Cutting out pictures illustrating *cat*, *hat*, *dog*, etc.
4. Making words with corn or other seeds.
5. Arranging word lists.
6. Arranging word cards and card pictures.
7. Arranging sentence phrases. Illustrating.
8. Arranging dissected stories.
9. Making words, phrases, and sentences with letter cards.
10. Making phonic lists.
11. Copying from print — words, phrases, sentences.
12. Finding phonograms in words; laying with letter cards the words and the phonograms.

B. Thought Content —

1. Illustrative handwork when it aids in clarifying thought, or increases interest in reading material.

2. Finding the sentence liked best. Use letter cards, write, or illustrate.
3. Finding a question in story. Write it. Write another question like it.
4. Writing one story or sentence about the picture.
5. Using letter cards, and making story about some one or something in the reading lesson.
6. Closing the book and then writing one thing learned from the reading lesson, etc.
7. Copying sentences chosen by teacher and children from lesson.

SECOND GRADE

Much of the work begun in the first grade may be continued and extended in the second grade, placing more stress upon independent effort.

A. Word Study —

1. Illustrative handwork continued and extended.
   a. Sketches of incidents, happenings, etc.
   b. Modeling, cutting, drawing, etc.
   c. Rhythmical work with units in cutting, etc.
2. Letter cards, early in year, making words, phrases, and sentences from copy, without copy. Work for unity and coherence in sentences around a theme.
3. Writing phonic lists.
   a. Words belonging to a phonetic family, as *ad.*
   b. Words beginning with a certain phonogram, as *ch.*
   c. Words ending with certain phonogram, as *sh.*
   d. Words with long or short vowels.
   e. Words with simple suffixes, as *ed, ing, est.*
   f. Listing phonograms and words in which they occur, as *ave — slave, unt — hunt, ent — went,* etc.
   g. Illustrating whenever possible any of the above.
4. Writing word associations of various kinds:
   a. Suggest one word. Class make list of all words which

come to mind. Copy from blackboard. Children make list independently.

b. Words which describe a horse, a day, a leaf, etc.

c. Words which tell action.

d. Words which name objects, persons, etc.

e. Guide words or important words in a lesson.

f. The little words in a lesson — in phrases.

g. Find a word. Find another which means the same, as *little, tiny, small.*

h. Illustrate all word lists whenever possible.

i. Use in phrases; in sentences; in paragraph. Emphasize unity and coherence. Avoid isolated, unrelated sentence making.

B. Thought Content —

1. Copying from blackboard the class story; the poem; a child's oral composition which has been recorded by the teacher. Illustrating often.
2. Copying from book the sentence or sentences liked best; the paragraph that tells something new. Illustrating often.
3. Copying the exact words of a character in the story.
4. Copying the paragraph which describes something; which asks something; which is funniest; in which the words please most; etc.
5. Writing the questions asked in lesson; asking one more.
6. Answering questions placed on board; in exact words of book; in child's own words.
7. Writing the main points in each of the first three paragraphs; in the story.
8. Naming the characters. Choosing one liked best and writing about it.
9. Closing the book. Writing one thing you have learned from the lesson.
10. Reproducing a part of a story as "The Lion and the Mouse," "What the Lion Did," or "How the Mouse Helped."

THIRD AND FOURTH GRADES

Much of the work begun in the second grade may be continued and extended with profit.

A. Word Study —

1. Phonic lists;
   a. Independently made, using suffixes and prefixes freely; as *ed, er, est, ly, ness, ful, less*, etc.
   b. Using one word as a root word; finding others that belong to this group; as *light, lights, lighting, delight, sunlight*, etc.
2. Classifications, as thing and place, thing and time, thing and action, thing and shape, thing and color, thing and quality, thing and part, part and thing, etc.
3. Words meaning one; more than one.
4. Words forming plurals in regular ways — irregular ways.
5. Words — meanings given in one word or phrase.
6. Opposites — quality, action, name.
7. Synonyms — *hot, torrid, warm.*
8. Words telling *how, when, where;* phrases telling *how, when, where.*
9. Words in phrases; copied from blackboard or from book; elliptical; used in sentences, illustrated often.
10. Words in sentences — preferably a connected or logical group of sentences around a theme, making a paragraph unity; copy from blackboard; elliptical work; independent work.
11. Guide words in story; guide phrases; or those which are significant in the story. Copying from blackboard, writing independently.
12. Lists of unusual expressions, phrases, words to be used in sentences.

B. Thought Content —

1. Writing paragraph liked best; illustrate.
2. Illustrating best points in lesson. Copying from book exact words; writing independently the best point in lesson.

3. Copying conversation in lesson. Quotation marks.
4. Copying descriptive parts. Writing description.
5. Copying interrogative sentences, exclamatory, etc. Changing form to declarative.
6. Questions answered as before.
7. Questions made by children.
8. Reproduction of selected paragraph.
9. Outlining a lesson, with teacher and independently.
10. Completing story or changing ending.
11. Changing narrative to dialogue.
12. Copying poem, illustrating parts.
13. Occasionally such problems as "Why did you like this story?" Comparing the characters in two stories; giving good points of each, difference, likenesses in scenes or setting, in plot, or in character.

X. Language seat work.[1] It is understood that the work in reading includes language, and much that has been listed under the head of reading is naturally in the nature of language work, also. However, a few more exercises for language seat work are given here:

1. Have the pupils divide a sheet of paper into three parts. In the first column write the names of the months. In the second write their abbreviations. In the third, write the number of days in each month.

2. Have them write stories from pictures.

3. Have them draw a picture and write a story about it.

4. One day tell the children, without previous announcement, to write the names of all the things they remember having seen on the way to school. Collect lists and tell them to do same to-morrow.

5. Have them write lists of names of boys and girls.

[1] The writer does not know who originated the exercises in sections X and XI.

6. Have them rewrite the following, supplying missing letters: *haven't, 'twas, they're, isn't, you're, I'll, you'll, they'll,* etc.

7. In upper grades have children use a portion of the reading lesson to arrange words alphabetically — dictionary style. Also arrange given lists of words.

8. The illustrated story. Cut a picture of a boy and dog from an old catalog or magazine, paste on cardboard, and have story written about it.

9. For the upper grades cut from newspaper some good "ads" and paste on cardboard. Give to children to read and study and then have them write one themselves.

10. Have pupils supply several predicates for a subject, as: The squirrel..... The dog.....

11. Have them supply several subjects for a predicate, as: ..... ran across the road.

12. Have pupils make a list of pronouns in a story, giving nouns to which they refer.

13. Have them write three things one can hear; taste; feel; touch; smell; see.

14. Have them write a sentence on the board, as: *I can sing.* Have the pupils copy it, and then write ten other sentences telling what they can do.

15. Pin a picture on the bulletin board, and with it the necessary words for telling a story about it. Have children tell the story.

XI. Number seat work. The following exercises are merely suggestive of what may be done:

1. Place some combination of figures upon the board, as 8 plus 3 equals ——, and direct pupils to write a story about it, as: Mary has 8 roses; Alice gives her 3 more roses; Mary then has 11 roses.

2. Give the children sheets of paper and rulers; direct them to draw a square nine inches long and five inches wide and then to

divide the square into forty-five one-inch squares. Then have one of the forty-five chief combinations written in each square.

3. Have children draw pictures of a pint measure; a gallon measure. Have the relative sizes as nearly correct as possible.

4. Have children match dominoes, placing them end to end, each two contiguous ends having same number of dots.

5. Place a clock dial with hands at six o'clock, in full view of the children. Have children draw a circle and fill in face of the clock, copying the numerals from the one in view. Again, have the children draw the hands so they will tell dinner time; time school calls in the morning; time school closes at night. Later, have drawing done from memory.

6. Have each child knot two feet of cord, making knots two inches apart.

7. Write: 26 has how many twos in it? How many threes? etc. The children write out: 26 has 13 twos; 26 has 8 threes plus 2, etc.

8. Use problems, as: John and Earl started out on bicycles. John goes 20 miles an hour, and Earl goes 22 miles an hour. Show how far apart they will be at noon if they start at nine o'clock.

9. Have children cut a six-inch square. Then cut an oblong one-half as large.

10. Distribute colored pegs, then have the children lay them according to directions written on board, thus: 3 blue, 2 yellow, 4 orange, 5 green, 6 purple, 4 red.

In Dr. Osburn's book entitled "Corrective Arithmetic,"[1] the author discusses seat work briefly, and gives some samples of exercises for primary grades. Here is an exercise on:

HOW WELL CAN YOU COUNT?

If you can count, you can answer the questions on this card. See if you can get them all right. Write your answers on your tablet. Be sure to number each answer.

[1] OSBURN, W. J. — *Corrective Arithmetic;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1924. Quotation printed by permission.

1. How many questions are on this card?
2. How many sides has this room?
3. How many doors are there?
4. How many windows?
5. How many window panes in each window?
6. How many window panes in all?
7. How many seats are in the room?
8. How many children are in the room?
9. How many boys?
10. How many girls?
11. How many fingers, toes, and thumbs have you?
12. How many eyes have you?
13. How many eyes are in this room?
14. How many fingers and thumbs are in this room?
15. How many of the girls have ribbons in their hair?
16. How many boys have shoes on?
17. How many boys are wearing coats?
18. How many girls have white dresses on?
19. How many brothers and sisters have you?
20. How many books have you in your desk?

When the children get through, they are to exchange papers and grade each other. The grade or score is the number correct. The teacher is to be called in only for the purpose of settling disagreements.

Further material of this sort may be obtained easily by collecting pictures from books and magazines. Write out questions concerning how many boys, girls, birds, frogs, etc., are in each picture. The sheet containing the directions and questions is pasted on one side of a folder while the picture is pasted on the other side. Old books and loose leaves are often very valuable in this connection. Lists of correct answers should be provided and given to the child as soon as he is through answering the questions. The child's answers should be at least 80 per cent correct.

It is not difficult for a teacher to find commercial seat work which will correlate with the regular subjects.

XII. Miscellaneous seat-work suggestions.[1] Few people realize the importance of between-class activities. Here a child is left to his own resources and, since little children have a tendency for being busy, the business of the school is to transform this tendency into purposeful work. It must be work that can be done independently by the pupil, and the presentation must require little time on the part of the teacher. It is important that this work grow out of the daily lessons and that it coördinate with them.

1. Most teachers have a supply of word cards. Once these were used for sentence building. An exercise that is an accurate test of comprehension can be given from these cards. The teacher selects nouns or any words that can be illustrated. Samples of such words are: *cat, pail, yellow, apples.* Each child is given about ten of these word cards. One by one he draws a picture placing the word directly under the picture. Such work is easily checked by the teacher.

2. Cut groups of words, such as: *a red and yellow kite, a dozen oranges, a little red cart,* etc., from old readers, and mount them on stiff manila paper. Place ten of these word groups in an envelope. Give each child an envelope. He keeps that envelope until he scores 100 per cent on the set. He then exchanges for a new set. A child completing ten envelopes has an accurate idea of one hundred word groups.

3. Whenever good descriptions are found in the stories read in class periods, children should illustrate them in between-class work periods. For example, after reading the poem, "The Lost Doll," this exercise might be given:

[1] The author is under obligations to one of his county normal teachers, Lola Smith Webb, for these suggestions. They have been gathered from many sources and tried out in Mrs. Webb's practice department.

Draw a picture of the doll before she was lost and another after she was found.

4. Assignments similar to this may be written on the board. Children follow the direction in their seat-work period, *e.g.:* We shall hang out our washing to-day. Draw a clothes line at the top of your paper. Cut a towel and paste it on this line. Cut out a pair of stockings. Hang them on the line, too. Cut out a little dress. Hang it on the line also.

5. Make lists of nouns and appropriate adjectives in the vocabulary of the child. Children place object slips along the tops of their desks. A slip with an appropriate descriptive adjective is placed underneath. Thus:

weather	gentleman	ball	flower
hot	old	round	pretty

6. Give pupils a calendar sheet. Tell them to select all numbers ending in 4, from 1 to 30, etc.

7. Place in envelopes slips on which have been written the names of days of the week and months of the year. Children are to arrange these slips in their proper order.

8. On a large sheet mount pictures of animals or familiar objects, such as: clock, bird, pear, mouse, ball, etc. These may be cut from old magazines by the primary pupils. Underneath the pictures or on the blackboard write sentences similar to these:

Which one can sing?	Which one likes cheese?
Which one tells the time of day?	Which one can roll?
	Which one has a stem?

The children read the questions silently, and write answers in full sentences, supplying the name of the object illustrated by the picture.

9. Lists of words are written on the board. In each of the lists one word is out of place. The children select, and write these words on a slip of paper. Thus:

blue, pink, table, white, green
peach, apple, boy, lemon, orange
Tuesday, Sunday, April, Friday
floor, desk, chair, wall, butter
cat, robin, bluebird, woodpecker
January, May, June, Christmas

10. Make a "Words I Know" booklet. Mount words that have been cut from advertising material in indexed booklet. Care must be taken that print is not too fine.

11. Give each child a cardboard circle, a square, and a triangle to be used in outlining. An assignment somewhat like this may be written on the board:

Make as many circles as you are old.
Draw as many squares as there are girls here to-day.
Make as many green triangles as there are framed pictures in the room.
Make a yellow square for each window in this room, etc.

12. Make a scrapbook of "Our Farm" for practice in cutting pictures.

13. Draw five things to eat.
Draw five things to wear.
Draw five things you take when going on a journey.

14. On little squares of heavy paper paste one-inch squares of various colors. On slips one inch by two inches write names of the colors. Have children put the correct name under each color.

15. How to make a Red Riding Hood doll:

Cut out a girl paper doll.
Paste it on cardboard.
Make a little red hood of tissue paper.
Paste it to your doll.
Make a little red paper cape.
Paste it on your doll, too.
Cut out a basket and color it brown.
Put it on your doll's arm.

16. A supply of riddles should be on hand for spare moments. They are easily placed on the board by the teacher. Here is an example of such a riddle:

I am made of cloth.
I am red, white, and blue.
Children sing songs about me.
I fly from a pole on sunshiny days.
What am I?
Draw me on a pole on top of your schoolhouse.

17. Make a picture booklet of letters representing sounds. The child is to get all the pictures he can find of objects beginning with a given sound, as:

f. father
fruit
furniture, etc.

18. Make a "How I Keep Healthy" booklet or poster. In language or at a morning exercise period work out suggestions for healthful living. As the children suggest worth-while ideas these are written upon the board. Children volunteer to find pictures to illustrate each rule. These may be used in making a group booklet or poster. Individual booklets may be made if preferred. Some ideas recently developed and illustrated by a first and second grade were:

I drink three glasses of milk every day.
I go to bed at seven o'clock every night.
I sleep with my windows open.
I play out of doors every day.
I wash my hands before eating.
I brush my teeth daily.
I eat vegetables and fresh fruits.
I take a bath at least once a week, etc.

19. How to make an Indian brave: You will need a clothespin, some clay, some bright-colored cloth, and some feathers. Make a ball of clay over the head of the clothespin. Put in the eyes, nose, and mouth. Try to make it look like an Indian face. Put two feathers in top of head. Make a square of clay and press the bottom of the clothespin in so the Indian will stand. Make blanket of bright-colored cloth and sew it on your Indian. When dry, paint Indian's face reddish brown. Paint his eyes and hair black. Make an Indian squaw in the same way, but do not put feathers in her hair.

20. How to make an Indian wigwam: Get three sticks about six inches long. Tie them together at the top with a string. Spread them out at the bottom so they will stand. This will make the framework for a wigwam. Take a piece of brown wrapping paper 9×12 inches. Cut a half circle from it, making it as large as possible. This is the skin covering of your wigwam. Draw some Indian pictures on the skin with bright-colored crayons. Fasten the skin covering to the framework. Fold back flaps for a door.

21. Some between-class activities that apply to specific reading defects are the following, the tendency at present being to correlate most of the seat work with reading:

a. For poor comprehension assign such problems for study as: Make a list of all the things that happened to the ugly duckling from the time he left the barnyard until he reached the tumble-down hut.

b. For inability to answer specific questions — From old magazines and newspapers cut short selections. Mount on cardboard. On back of a card write a number of fact questions, the answers to which can be given in the exact wording of parts of paragraphs.

c. For meager-meaning vocabulary.

(1) List on the board words which are class names. Make another list of examples under the class names, children arranging, as: food — bread; animals — horse; clothing — coat; flowers — violet.

(2) Make list of words which name the whole of something; another list of words which name parts of that thing, as: engine — wheel; book — page; hand — finger; face — eyes.

Many valuable suggestions pertaining to between-class activities may be found in the *Twentieth Year Book* of the National Society for the Study of Education, published by the Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois.

XIII. Suggestions — directions — cautions.

1. Have a place for everything and keep everything in its place. A set of shelves or a table should be used on which to keep materials. Individual boxes should be properly cared for.

2. Train older pupils to help younger ones. Helpers should be selected on the basis of merit and privilege, not

as a matter of compulsion. The teacher must, of course, check up on the helpers or monitors.

3. Inspect all work done by pupils. Do not change the work too often. Train pupils to finish the work in hand so as to develop habits of thoroughness. Train older pupils to help inspect work and to correct mistakes.

4. The teacher must note results secured by pupils and comment favorably on neatness and improvement.

5. The teacher should encourage the weak, and praise honest effort.

6. Set up the work so that it can be seen, and let the pupils tell which items they like best and why. Post good work on bulletin board.

7. Adapt the seat work, in material and method, to the needs of the individual as much as possible.

8. There are six things to be considered in planning seat work for rural schools, according to one supervisor: It must be (1) worth while; (2) interesting; (3) progressive; (4) coördinate with daily recitations; (5) easy to prepare; and (6) inexpensive.

9. To make seat work effective, the teacher must check up work done or children may get into careless habits and thus not do their work well.

10. Miss Barnes in her *Rural School Management*[1] states that three types of seat work commonly used — writing, making figures, and memorizing — are mostly harmful instead of helpful, and should not be used in any school.

11. A teacher is not usually justified in giving a child work merely to keep him busy and quiet. Usually such pupil activity is for the benefit of teacher rather than child.

[1] Barnes, Ina — *Rural School Management;* The Macmillan Company. 1923.

12. Memorization of lessons, lists of words, dates, capitals, etc., in meaningless fashion, is worse than time wasted.

13. For upper-grade pupils the most profitable seat work will be carefully directed study, use of problems in history and geography, project procedure in agriculture, nature study, working out of individual assignments, and the like.

XIV. Additional suggestions and helps.[1] During the child's first three years in school, principal emphasis is placed upon his acquiring skill in reading. The most worth-while seat-work exercises that can be provided for these grades are those which will contribute to this end. Such exercises may be based upon a child's previous reading, require a further use of reading as a tool in order to carry out the assigned activity, or involve both of these requirements. If carefully planned, these exercises will function materially in acquiring ease and fluency in reading and in forming the habit of reading for thought. An exercise may be based upon a second reading of specific pages of the child's reader. The mechanical difficulties were mastered in the first reading, hence he may now concentrate upon the content side.

Reading easy supplementary material that offers few or no mechanical difficulties furnishes one of the best means of creating a desire to read. Bobbitt gives the following criteria for this kind of leisure reading for all grades: (1) easy, (2) rapid, (3) voluminous in amount, (4) graded in difficulty. In order to insure the formation of correct reading habits, the child may be required to give an account of such reading. He may give an oral report of the entire selection or of specific parts, or he may illustrate the thought by means of drawing, cutting, clipping, or modeling. The *Twenty-Fourth Year Book* of the National Society for the Study of Education, Book I, Chapter VII, contains an excellent list of such reading material for each of the elementary-school reading periods.

Careful directions in giving definite things to look for in the

[1] The suggestions in this section are taken from Montana State Course of Study for Rural Schools, 1926 edition, by courteous permission of State Department of Public Instruction, Helena.

independent reading that the child is to do during this study period will help in establishing critical reading habits. Such directions may require analysis, evaluation, and organization of the thought expressed in the reading. Directions requiring careful reading before they can be carried out furnish worth-while seat work for training in comprehension. Such directions may be written on blackboard or on paper. Typewriters equipped with primer size type are now available and provide an excellent solution of the problem of preparing seat work for lower grades. Such exercises should offer no vocabulary difficulties and may be based on (1) children's experiences or (2) specific selections from a reader.

During the early weeks of the child's school life, he has little or no reading vocabulary upon which to base his seat work. Early activities having for their purpose the gaining of specific manual skills such as cutting, modeling, drawing, coloring, and pasting, form the basis for some valuable exercises. Here are some types of such seat work:

1. Cutting out pictures from seed, fashion, furniture, and other catalogs, thus training in use of scissors and cutting to line, coördination, and muscle control.

2. Pasting into a book or on cards pictures cut out, to be labeled later after children have sufficient vocabulary, thus training in neat pasting.

3. Making the home farm on sand table, using twigs for trees and cut-out pictures of buildings and people, thus training in harmonious arrangement.

4. Molding animals from clay for farm sand table, thus training in sense of proportion and in hand skill.

5. Drawing pictures of things discussed to be used for posters or picture books, thus training in muscular coördination and control and in the representation of familiar objects.

6. Dressing paper dolls, thus training in originality, hand skill in pasting, etc.

7. Tracing child's own name written in large letters by the teacher on the blackboard, thus training in muscular control and in the recognition of letter forms and the child's own name.

8. Playing games — dissected pictures: finding irregular cut-outs that fit into large cards, the large card having on it a picture of an object and the cut-out having written or printed on it the name of the object. Later there is practice in recognition of words from pictures of objects which represent them. Both of these devices train in concentration and speed and in seeing who can win the game.

Seat work is given not for busy work, but (1) to reënforce and supplement the class recitation, and (2) to give children an incentive to discover new words through application of phonics, through help from other children, or association with pictures and objects. Seat work will result in old-type busy work if importance is not stressed and results inspected by the teacher or an older pupil. Children must be made to feel their responsibility for the completion of a seat-work project within a given time. Besides the seat work mentioned above the following devices will be found useful:

1. Groups of children sit on the floor in the back of the room. An older child acts as leader at first. Children are given cards on which are written or printed words, phrases, and sentences. The leader has pictures cut from magazines, old primers, and catalogs pasted on tag-board cards. As he lays down a picture, the child finds from his word and sentence cards a suitable label, such as *boy*, *Little Boy Blue*, or *The little boy is asleep*.

2. In the back of the room on a table place many common objects: book, pencil, pen, box, cap, flag, etc. Children are given corresponding word cards. Children label objects. At first they will need help. Children may work in groups or singly.

3. Small word cards corresponding to pictures which children will find in catalogs given out to them. The game is to find the pictured object, cut it out, and place it near the word which it represents.

4. Envelopes containing small color cards and corresponding word cards are passed out to the children. A key may or may not be on the envelope. Children arrange the words and corresponding color cards side by side.

5. This device is similar to the one above, only dots, lines, and figures represent *one, two, three,* etc. Children arrange side by side the *word two,* the *figure 2,* and the *dots* which stand for *two.*

6. A rectangular piece of wrapping paper or tag board is divided into small rectangles by drawing lines vertically and horizontally. In these rectangles are written phrases and words which children have had in reading. Children cut on the lines and from the phrases and words make sentences like those on the blackboard or in the book, or original sentences.

7. If children in other grades are playing store and are using spice, cereal, or thread boxes, and other containers of store supplies, the first-year children may study labels and match word cards to the labels, as: *pepper, corn flakes, thread,* etc.

8. Children cut up large advertisements in magazines, catalogs, and auction-sale circulars for pictures and all familiar words which they can work out phonetically or guess at from proximity of the word and picture. Paste the word on one side of the card and the picture on the opposite side.

9. *ABC Books.* Children trace around a cardboard pattern of a ship and arrange several ships across the top of their paper, lettering each ship. They play the game, "The ship's in the harbor! What is she carrying?" Under ship marked *A* are written all name words beginning with *A* which the children have had in reading or which they can find in a catalog and are able to discover. The same is done with the ships marked with other letters of the alphabet.

10. The teacher writes the first word of every sentence of the lesson on a separate slip. Children arrange them in column form for study in the same order as in the book. These are often difficult words, as: *there, once, when, these,* etc.

11. The teacher copies all phrases in a given lesson which contain the words *in the* or *to the.* Children go over these phrases and see how many they know.

12. The teacher copies a paragraph from a lesson cut up at beginning of the year into lines and later, third month, into phrases and words. Children arrange them in proper order, paste on to

lower half of construction or other heavy paper, and illustrate with crayons on upper half of paper. This is the child's *poster;* or several of such pages may be put together with a simple cover as his reading book. This may be used for review lesson on Friday afternoons.

13. Begin giving on the blackboard simple directions for the children to follow such as: "Cut out Little Black Sambo." Gradually increase these in difficulty, as: "Cut out the Gingerbread Boy. Color him brown. Put some black buttons on his coat."[1]

Class Discussion Questions

1. Name several things done by children as busy work which you feel should be omitted.

2. Get the catalog of a reliable school-supply house and make out a list, with prices, of educative seat-work equipment and materials which you would like your board to purchase for you. Total the bill, and don't go beyond $10.00 for the first order. Make out another ten-dollar supplementary order.

3. Why must study be considered an essential part of the general seat-work problem? Can smaller pupils study? Study what, and how, and why? Discuss this problem.

4. Discuss the second topic "Rural school conditions and needs," expressing your own opinion freely upon this important subject.

5. Make a list of ten profitable tasks which can be used as seat work in agriculture, aside from studying the textbook.

[1] Teachers will find lists of materials and equipment for seat work in appendix of the author's book *Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher*, pp. 527, 528, 545, 546. Also see two books by Fannie W. Dunn — *Educative Equipment for Rural Schools* and *Educative Seat Work*. Some useful materials are mentioned in appendix of *The Primary School* by Annie E. Moore. Attention of the rural teacher is also called to the book by Miss Ina Barnes entitled *Rural School Management*, published by the Macmillan Company. The appendix to Miss Barnes's book is particularly helpful. There is a chapter on seat work.

6. Make a 1-2-3 list of all objectives mentioned in the section on aims. Can you think of any other objectives or purposes?

7. In the section on classes of seat work check off all the kinds of seat work which you think could be done in the average rural school.

8. Name five different uses which a teacher can make of a hectograph in a rural school. Look up the prices of hectographs with one, two, three, and four surfaces. What other names are used besides *hectograph?* Is the mimeograph a practicable machine in the average rural school? Why?

9. In seat work, under the head of *reading,* select all exercises or directions which you think may properly be classed as language as well as reading. Why are language and reading as closely associated as the inside and outside of a saucer?

10. Why should so much more space be devoted to reading in the primary grades than to any other subject? Discuss this important problem.

References Relating to Seat Work

A. books, bulletins, and other materials

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2. Arnold, Sarah L. — *Plans for Busy Work;* Silver, Burdett and Company. 1901.

3. Arnold, Sarah L. — *Waymarks for Teachers;* Silver, Burdett and Company. 1894.

4. Barnes, Ina — *Rural School Management;* The Macmillan Company. 1923.

5. Boas, Belle — *Art in the School;* Doubleday, Page and Company. 1924.

6. Bright, O. T. — *Profitable Seat Work;* A. Flanagan Company. 1925.

7. Byrd, H. J. — *Intermediate Silent Reading Cards;* A. Flanagan Company. 1925.

8. Byrd, H. J. — *Primary Silent Reading Cards;* A. Flanagan Company. 1925.

9. Collins, Maude M., and Anderson, Laura E. — *Silent Reading Seat Work Pad for Use with the Elson Hand Chart and Primer;* Scott, Foresman and Company. 1927.

10. Cooper, Nellie — *How to Teach the Primary Grades;* A. Flanagan Company. 1926.

11. Cutler, H. M., and Stone, J. M. — *The Rural School: Its Method and Management;* Silver, Burdett and Company. 1913.

12. Dobbs, Ella V. — *Primary Hand Work;* The Macmillan Company. 1914.

13. Dunn, Fannie W. — *Educative Seat Work;* State Normal School for Women, Farmville, Virginia. 1919.

14. Dunn, Fannie W. —*Educative Equipment for Rural Schools;* Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1921.

15. Dyer, Ruth O. — *Cut Out Book;* A. Flanagan Company. 1916.

16. Enloe, Mary A. — *Picture Story Cut-Outs;* A. Flanagan Company. 1927.

17. George, Marian M. — *Suggestions for Seat Work;* A. Flanagan Company. 1926.

18. George, Marian M. — *Primary Plan Books — (Autumn — Winter — Spring);* A. Flanagan Company. 1911.

19. Gilman, M. L., and William, E. B. — *Seat Work and Industrial Occupations: A Practical Course for Primary Grades;* The Macmillan Company. 1913.

20. Goldstein, Mabel — *Thought Questions and Answers;* Harter School Supply Company. 1924.

21. Goodhue, L. P. — *Sensible Seat Work;* Ideal School Supply Company. 1923.

22. Grant, Maude M. — *Child Life Number Stories and Seat Work;* A. Flanagan Company. 1926.

23. Hall, A. G. — *One Hundred Devices in Seat Work;* A. Flanagan Company. 1925.

24. Harris, A. V., and Waldo, L. M. — *First Journeys in Numberland;* Scott, Foresman and Company. 1911.

25. Heller, Regina R. — *Silent Reading Exercises;* Detroit Teachers College. 1922.

26. Heller, Regina R., and Parker, Claudia M. — *Silent Reading Paragraphs for Specific Training in Thought-Getting;* Detroit Teachers College. 1927.

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29. Howard, Inez M., Hawthorne, Alice, and Howard, Mae — *Number Friends;* The Macmillan Company. 1927.

30. Krackowizer, A. M. — *Projects in Primary Grades;* J. B. Lippincott Company. 1919.

31. McGraw, Virginia — *Construction Work for Rural and Elementary Schools;* A. Flanagan Company. 1921.

32. McKee, Jane W. — *Purposeful Handwork;* The Macmillan Company. 1922.

33. McLaughlin, K. L., and Troxell, E. — *Number Projects for Beginners;* J. B. Lippincott Company. 1923.

34. Merton, Elda L. — *Study Period Projects;* Laidlaw Brothers. 1928.

35. Moeller, H. C., and Tormey, T. J. — *The First Days at School;* Ginn and Company. 1926.

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38. Myers, G. C. — *Story Problems in Arithmetic;* Harter School Supply Company. 1926.

39. Myers, G. C. — *Silent Teacher of Reading;* Harter School Supply Company. 1926.

40. Signor, Florence R., Ed. — *Material Aids and Devices for Teachers* — Two volumes; F. A. Owen Publishing Company. 1925.

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42. Pickard, A. E. — *Rural Education;* Webb Publishing Company. 1915.

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45. Sargent, Walter — *Fine and Industrial Arts in Elementary Schools;* Ginn and Company. 1912.

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Professor J. A. Wiley, State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa. 1927.

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1. *Baker and Thorndike Everyday Classics, The;* The Macmillan Company, New York and Chicago. 1917, 1918, 1922.

2. *Bobbs-Merrill Readers, The* — The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis. 1924.

3. *Boys' and Girls' Readers, The* — Houghton Mifflin Company, New York and Chicago. 1923.

4. *Child Story Readers, The;* Lyons and Carnahan, Chicago and New York. 1927.

5. *Elson-Runkel Readers, The* — Scott, Foresman and Company. 1920.

6. *Learn to Study Readers, The* — Ginn and Company, New York and Chicago. 1925.

7. *Lewis and Rowland Silent Readers, The* — The John C. Winston Company, Philadelphia. 1924.

8. *Lincoln Readers, The* — The Laurel Book Company, Chicago. 1922.

9. *Lippincott's Silent Readers* — J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia. 1923.

10. *New Newson Readers* — Newson and Company, New York and Chicago. 1927, 1928, 1929.

11. *Pathway to Reading Series, The* — Silver, Burdett and Company, Chicago. 1927.

12. Pearson and Hunt's *Everyday Reading* — The American Book Company, New York and Chicago. 1927.

13. *Silent Reading Hour Readers, The* — Wheeler Publishing Company, Chicago. 1923.

14. *Stone Silent Reading Series, The* — Houghton Mifflin Company, New York and Chicago. 1925.

15. *Study Readers, The* — Charles E. Merrill Company, New York and Chicago. 1924.

16. *Thought Test Readers for the Primary Grades, The* — The University Publishing Company, Lincoln, Nebraska. 1924.

C. ARITHMETIC PRACTICE SEAT WORK

(Practice, Drill, and Test Materials)

1. CLAPP — *The Clapp Drill Books in Arithmetic;* Silver, Burdett and Company, Chicago. 1926.
2. COURTIS — *Courtis Standard Research Tests, Series A and B — Grades Four to Eight;* The World Book Company, Chicago. 1916.
3. FOWLKES AND GOFF — *The Fowlkes-Goff Practice Tests in Arithmetic for Grades Seven, Eight, and Nine.* — The Macmillan Company, New York and Chicago. 1925.
4. KNIGHT, RUCH, AND STUDEBAKER — *Arithmetic Work Books — Grades Three to Eight;* Scott, Foresman and Company, Chicago. 1926.
5. LENNES — *Work, Drill, and Test Sheets — Grades Two to Eight;* Laidlaw Brothers, Chicago. 1930.
6. MCDADE — *Individual Number Drills;* Plymouth Press, Chicago. 1925.
7. MCMURRY, BENSON, JENSEN — *Arithmetic Practice — Grades Three, Four, Five;* The Macmillan Company, New York and Chicago. 1927.
8. MONROE — *Monroe Diagnostic Arithmetic Tests;* Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois.
9. OSBURN — *The Wisconsin Inventory Tests;* Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois.
10. STUDEBAKER — *Studebaker Economy Practice Exercises in Arithmetic — Set B — Two for Rural Schools;* Scott, Foresman and Company. 1926.
11. THORNDIKE — *Exercises in Arithmetic;* Rand, McNally and Company, Chicago. 1920.

(Note: See the list of publishers, on page 516. Send for catalogs.)

D. A FEW USEFUL NUMBER PRIMERS

Teachers will find these number primers of much value in helping to solve the problem of seat work in the second and third grades particularly.

1. Bailey and Germann — *Number Primer;* American Book Company, New York and Chicago. 1909.
2. Gibbs — *Natural Number Primer;* American Book Company. 1903.
3. Harris and Waldo — *First Journeys in Numberland;* Scott, Foresman and Company. 1911.
4. Howard, Hawthorne, and Howard — *Number Friends: A Primary Arithmetic;* The Macmillan Company, New York and Chicago. 1927.
5. Hoyt and Peet — *First Year in Numbers;* Houghton Mifflin Company, New York and Chicago. 1912.
6. Smith, David E., Luce, Eva May, and Morss, Edward L. — *Walks and Talks in Numberland;* Ginn and Company. 1929.
7. Stone — *A Child's Book of Number;* Benj. H. Sanborn and Company. 1924.
8. Umholtz — *Primary Number Book;* Lyons and Carnahan, Chicago. 1912.
9. Wentworth and Smith — *Work and Play with Numbers;* Ginn and Company, New York and Chicago. 1912.

E. MAGAZINES FOR TEACHER AND PUPILS

1. American Boy.
2. American Childhood.
3. Bird Lore.
4. Boy's Life.
5. Childhood Education.
6. Child Life.
7. Current Events.
8. John Martin's Magazine.
9. Junior Home Magazine and Little Folks.
10. National Geographic Magazine.

11. Nature Magazine.
12. Normal Instructor and Primary Plans.
13. Popular Science Monthly.
14. Schools Arts Magazine.
15. The Grade Teacher. (Formerly Primary Education — Popular Educator.)

F. SOME COMPANIES PUBLISHING SEAT-WORK MATERIAL

1. Abbott Educational Company, Chicago.
2. American Crayon Company, The, Sandusky, Ohio.
3. Beckley-Cardy Company, Chicago.
4. Binney and Smith Company, New York.
5. Bryant, C. A., Dallas and Houston, Texas.
6. Charles, Thos., Company, Chicago.
7. Constructive Seat Work Service, Princeton, Illinois.
8. Dennison Manufacturing Company, Framingham, Massachusetts.
9. Eau Claire Book and Stationery Company, Eau Claire, Wisconsin.
10. Ideal School Supply Company, Chicago.
11. Educational Publishing Company, Boston, New York, Chicago.
12. Flanagan, A., Company, Chicago.
13. Garden City Educational Company, Chicago.
14. Hammett, H. L., Company, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
15. Harter School Supply Company, Cleveland, Ohio.
16. Laidlaw Brothers, Chicago.
17. Latta, J. S., Cedar Falls, Iowa; Huntington, West Virginia; Memphis, Tennessee.
18. Le Page's Craft League, Gloucester, Massachusetts.
19. Milton Bradley Company, Springfield, Massachusetts.
20. Omaha School Supply Company, Omaha, Nebraska.
21. Owen, F. A., Publishing Company, Dansville, New York.
22. Plymouth Press, The, Chicago.
23. Prang Company, The, New York, Chicago, Boston.

24. Saint Paul Book and Stationery Company, Saint Paul, Minnesota.

25. Spool Cotton Company, The, New York.

26. Tablet and Ticket Company, The, New York, Chicago, San Francisco. (Willson's gummed paper letters and figures.)

27. Webster Publishing Company, St. Louis, Missouri.

28. Winston, John C., Company, Philadelphia.

CHAPTER XVI

A RURAL SCHOOL OF THE FIRST CLASS

A central idea in writing this chapter has been to present as much useful, reliable information as possible for teachers in all classes of schools, not simply for those who work in first-class or superior schools. It would surely be ideal if any school could have all of the equipment mentioned here, but such ideal conditions seldom exist, even in the best schools. All teachers, no matter what conditions may be, need guiding suggestions for improvement. If some gain is made in any school each year, in the course of a series of years the progress will be noticeable and creditable.

There are over 150,000 one-room rural schools in the United States. Thousands of these schools are inadequate in building, equipment, and teaching service. Other thousands are first-rate in these particulars, and tens of thousands of average condition range between the very poor and the very good. During the past fifteen to twenty years efforts have been made in many states to standardize rural schools through the establishment of higher- or highest-grade schools. These schools have been designated variously as superior, first-class, first-grade, or class-A schools. In a bulletin issued in 1925 by the Bureau of Education and entitled "The Improvement of Rural Schools by Standardization," the author, Miss Edith A. Lathrop, defines standardization as follows: "Standardization is the establishment of a definite level of school attainment through the adoption of certain minimum requirements authorized

either by law or by the chief school administrative head of the state; these requirements relate either to the physical plant or to the management of the school, or to both. Schools that meet the requirements are usually rewarded in one or more of the following ways: by honorary mention in reports issued by the state department of education, or by receiving tablets, certificates, or money appropriations from the state."

The purpose of this chapter is to describe those conditions which should, for the most part, be found in rural schools of the first class. Standards of what is right have changed materially during even the past ten years, and the writer has endeavored to see that the facts presented in this chapter are in accordance with the rules usually laid down by authorities on this subject. We shall doubtless have one-teacher rural schools in every state of the Union for many years to come. In years gone by teachers and pupils have been forced to accept conditions which have often been unfavorable to good work; and in many instances the building and equipment have been deplorably bad. Such evil conditions prevail in many communities even to-day. We shall not make headway unless we have knowledge of better conditions. By holding up high ideals some persons may become inspired to attain them, or at least constantly to work towards their attainment. Such striving is certainly worth while, and is bound ultimately to produce results.

I. Location and grounds. Tens of thousands of rural school buildings are located on sites that are wholly undesirable from almost any point of view. The first matter to consider is that of healthfulness. The building should sit on a plot of ground where there is a gentle slope and where the drainage is good. There should be nothing in the neighborhood which will in any way be a contamination,

whether physically or morally. The air should be good, with plenty of circulation. It should also be possible to get an abundance of sunlight into the room both forenoon and afternoon, when the sun shines; proper window location and construction will insure this. There should be at least an acre of ground — better, two acres — laid out in rectangular shape in about the ratio of three to five for width and length. It is possible to have a good, well-kept lawn in front with ample provision for playgrounds for children of different ages at the sides and in the rear.

The school is best located near the center of population so that no child will need to walk more than two miles. When transportation is provided, location, from that point of view, is not so serious a problem. A good close-mesh woven-wire fence with steel posts is needed in some places, though not in others. Such a fence can be made ornamental as well as useful. Concrete walks leading to the school from the road, to the outbuildings, and to the woodshed are of distinct advantage. A good driveway coming in at one corner of the front yard and going out at the other (with a gentle declivity of the yard toward the road) will be a great convenience to all who visit the school. It seems needless to say that all sticks, stones, or débris of any sort should be raked up or picked up whenever necessary. Trees, shrubbery, and flowers will add greatly to the appearance and usefulness of the grounds. Maples, oaks, ashes, birches, elms, and chestnuts are common, as well as such shrubs as sumac, syringa, bridal wreath, elderberry, and the hardier varieties of roses. The author gives a considerable list of trees and shrubs in his book, *Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher*, p. 113. Outbuildings may be covered with the Virginia creeper and the wild cucumber. By the

use of bulbs it is possible to have flowers before the school year closes.

II. General construction of building. If possible, the building should face the south. This is especially desirable in northern climates. In many states a northern exposure is likely to make heating more difficult and the entrance and exit of teacher and pupils much less comfortable. The building should be of what is called the cottage type, with the principal room a rectangle in the ratio of three to four. The old box-car type is as exceedingly common as it is unsightly. The exterior can be given a pleasing appearance at small additional cost. If the entrance is from the south, windows can be placed on either the east or west side, depending on the point of the compass the children face. The vestibule requires windows or a door with lights, or both. Everything should be protected from the weather with the exception of the concrete platform outside, on which should be fastened enough foot-scrapers.

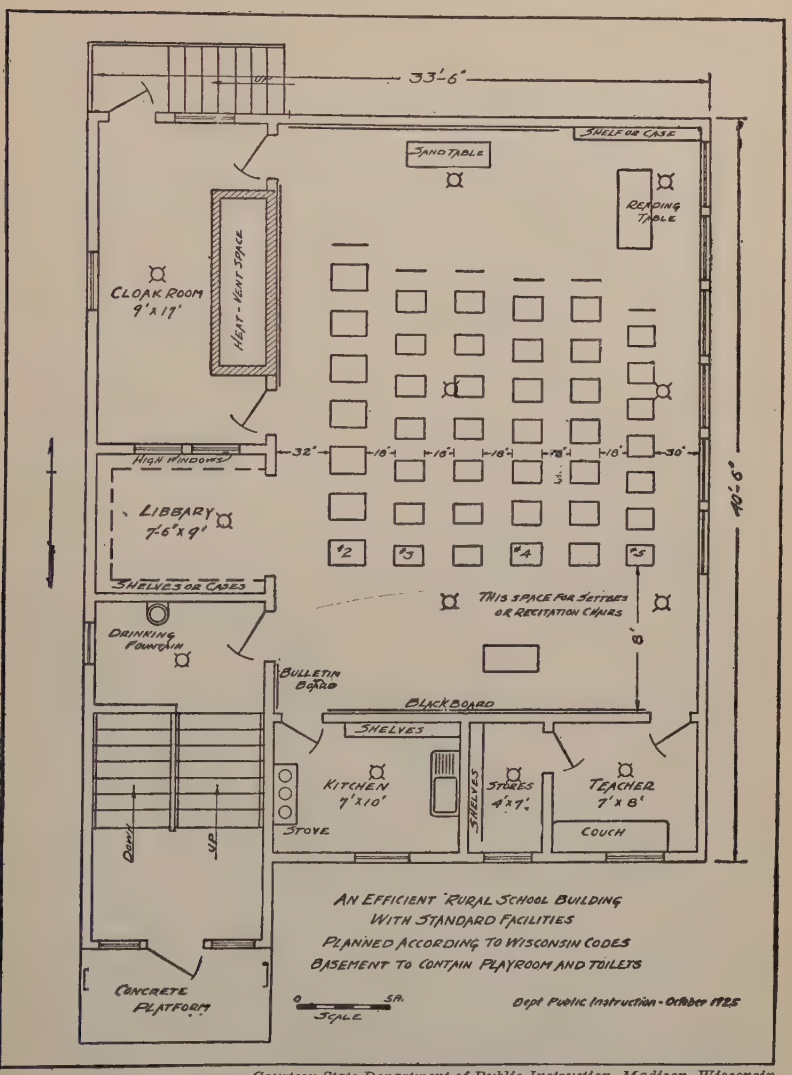
A large coco-fiber mat can be placed inside of the vestibule. The building can be constructed of hollow tile, stone, brick, concrete blocks, wood-stucco, or wood, as best determined by local conditions. It should be well built with a solid, well-laid, water- and damp-proof foundation. The roof should be made of fireproof material, which is also impervious to the weather. The walls should be weather proof and of air-cell construction, put up by conscientious workmen. A country school can be pleasing in exterior appearance and also conveniently arranged inside, as is proven by hundreds of modern instances all over the United States. The exterior effect will be determined by the style of architecture and by the appropriateness and freshness of the paint. The little red box-car type of country schoolhouse is

A rural school of the first class

a blot on the landscape, and, as fast as possible, it should be eliminated.

III. Rooms: desirable and necessary. Besides the one main room for study and recitation, which should be of ample size, certain auxiliary rooms are also desirable or actually necessary. These necessary rooms, which are usually found only in modern buildings, are: cloakrooms, a library room (preferably an alcove), a teacher's room, a play room in the basement, a kitchen, a storeroom, a workroom, and a fuel room. In some cases, that is, where running water and sewerage are available, indoor toilets will be added also. The *cloakrooms*, two in number, need to be heated, lighted, and ventilated. These rooms should open from the main room and be under the direct oversight of the teacher. They should be well supplied with good hooks and places to keep rubbers, overshoes, and the like. Individual lockers are desirable, if there is room for them. The *library* may well be in an alcove, where a sufficient number of built-in book shelves will take care of both reference books and textbooks. This room will require a table and chairs, and it may or may not be screened off from the main room in some way. Many prefer it not screened, in this way insuring greater use and better supervision.

The *teacher's room* may be small, but it should accommodate a cot or couch as well as a chair. The *play room* may be in the basement, which should have at least a nine-foot ceiling and a floor of planed matched planks. The *kitchen* will prove useful in the preparation and serving of the hot noonday lunch, and also on other occasions. This room, like the others, needs to be heated, lighted, and ventilated. It will of course be provided with a stove, a table, and a cupboard. A *storeroom* or closet, in which to place various supplies and the materials used in keeping the building



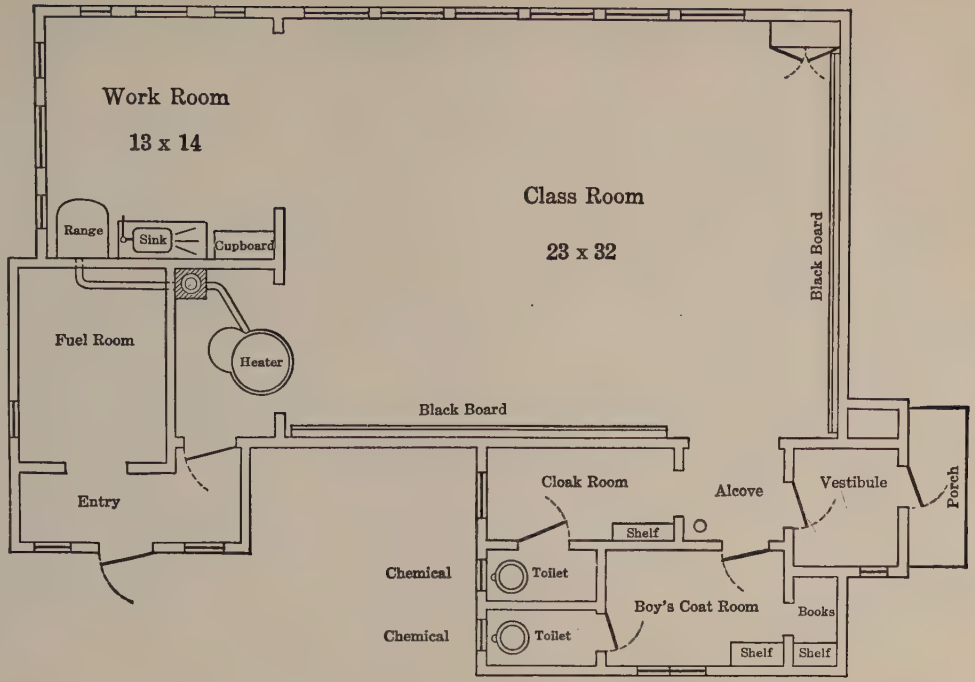
Courtesy State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, Wisconsin

Floor plan of modern rural schoolroom

Note especially the kitchen, teacher's room, library, and storeroom, all very desirable.

clean, will prove useful. This room or closet will require plenty of shelf room. Of course a *fuel room* for coal, ashes, etc., is necessary. If built inside the schoolhouse, it should be of fireproof materials, and if outside, it should be closely connected with the building. A good-sized *workroom* will be of distinct value, if provided with tools, benches, shelves, and cupboards. It can be used in teaching agriculture, domestic science, woodwork, and similar subjects.

IV. Interior arrangements. The room should be 23 ft. wide, 32 ft. long, and 12 ft. high. These are standard dimensions. Such a room will accommodate a larger number of pupils than is usually found in a rural school. There should be 240 cu. ft. of air space and 20 sq. ft. of floor space for each child. The window-glass area should be one fifth of the floor area. Every schoolroom needs plenty of sunlight. There should be at least 200 sq. ft. of blackboard — natural slate, Sterling slate, or hyloplate. The latter will not give good service unless put on exactly right. The blackboard should be about 4 ft. wide, and several linear feet of it should come within about two feet of the floor, for use by the smaller children. No blackboard should ever be placed between windows. The floors should be made of three-inch hard maple, well matched and laid smoothly. The walls are standard if of good-quality plaster — hard, smooth, but not glary. Wainscoting is not a standard finish now. Doors should open outward. All windows should open at both top and bottom. Doors and windows need screens in fall and spring. A good bulletin board is indispensable, and it should be large enough to post the children's work, maps, notices, and anything else desired. It may be made of soft pine or beaver board covered with burlap; or cork carpet may also be used successfully. Probably two or three smaller bulletin boards placed low



Modern type of one-room country school

From BARNES, INA — *Rural School Management;* The Macmillan Company. 1923.

enough for the pupils to use them would be preferable. This main room should have enough closet room or cupboards to take care of odds and ends of things which should not be left out in the open. A well-made sloping shelf of ample size, with a protecting strip around the sides and lower edge, is better for the dictionary than a patented holder.

V. Heating and ventilating system. No doubt the ideal system is an adequate furnace in a well-constructed basement, and this installation should certainly prevail in all new buildings. However, much can be said in favor of a first-class jacketed stove or room heater, and there are now several good ones on the market. School boards should take great pains to purchase a standard make which has proven its worth through several years of actual schoolroom testing. Provided a thoroughly standard and reliable make is selected, the next step is to see that it is properly installed. If possible, the chimney should extend to the ground and it should be of sufficient size to carry off both smoke and foul air — 18 in. square — 324 sq. in. The register at the bottom should be about 20 in. by 16 in. The fresh air intake should be from 18 to 20 in. in diameter.

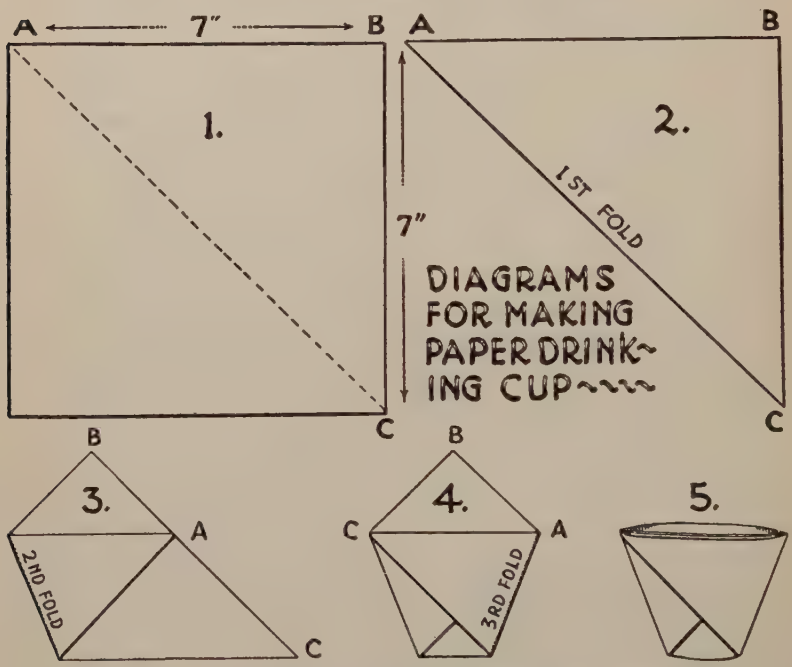
The stove and jacket should be installed in the corner of the room where the foul-air outlet is found, and in many of the midwest states, at any rate, this may properly be in the northwest corner. A good system will easily maintain a temperature of 68°, and will furnish each pupil 30 cubic feet of fresh air per minute, when there is a good fire and when ducts and flues are all working properly. In order to keep the temperature uniform, an accurate thermometer should be suspended in the middle of the room about five feet from the floor. A trusty pupil should take frequent readings and adjust the check drafts and dampers. An evaporating pan, or humidifier, should keep the air suffi-

ciently moist for health. The relative humidity should not go below 40, and in order to know the condition an accurate hygrometer is needed. On a cold winter's day the water in the evaporating pan should be kept steaming. In cold weather the fresh-air intake may well be closed at night and not opened in the morning until the room is warm.

VI. The water supply. Every rural school of the first class will surely have a good, drilled well on the grounds to provide the children with an abundant supply of pure drinking water and also to furnish water for cleaning purposes, unless there is a cistern of soft water which can be used for washing hands and faces and for keeping the building in a neat, sanitary condition. The well should not be placed so that any contamination of the water is possible. To this end the ground should slope away from the well, and a concrete platform, resting upon a base which extends a foot or two below the surface, should be built. The cement below the platform should form a good-sized waterproof dome around the pump so that no surface water can get into the well. The water should be tested each fall before school opens, if practicable ; but in any case a considerable quantity of water should be pumped out of the well before the opening of school.

Probably the most sanitary method of dispensing the water to the children is by use of a stone tank of good size, furnished with a faucet, each pupil providing himself with paper cups as needed. Individual drinking cups of tin or porcelain are apt to get dirty and very unsanitary. A bubbler is not altogether cleanly and safe, as some children are sure to put their lips on the metal through which the water comes. Every first-class school will have a good iron, porcelain-lined sink of ample size with a drain pipe, for use when washing hands and faces and for other purposes.

There will also be a liquid-soap dispenser, paper towels, and a serviceable mirror. It will usually be better to have two such outfits, one for the boys and one for the girls.



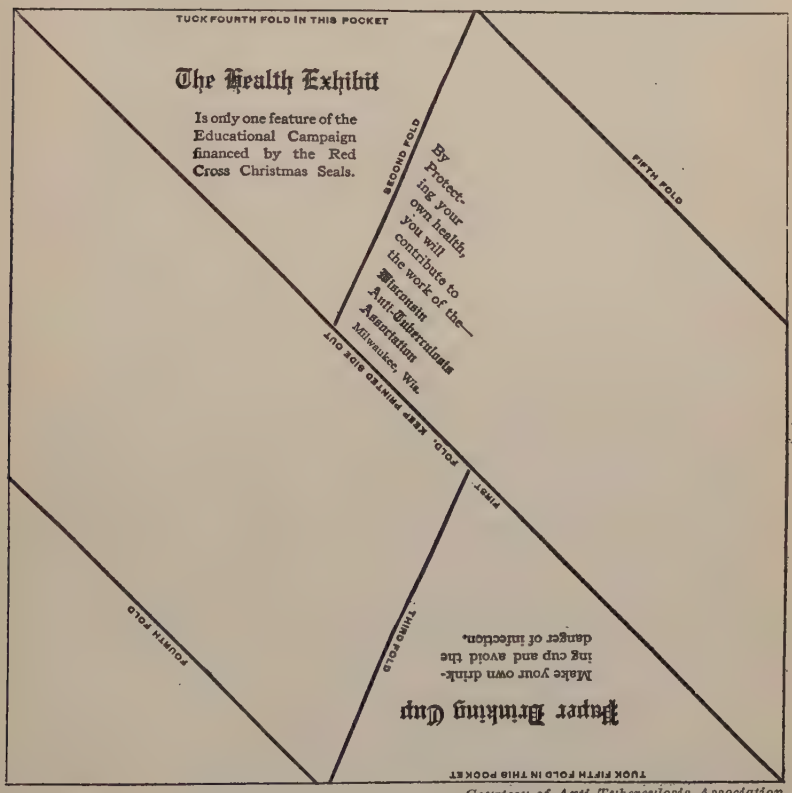
Courtesy of The Crusader — W. A. T. A.

Any child can learn to make this

No danger of infection from an individual paper cup.

VII. Outbuildings — construction and condition. The outbuildings or toilets found on hundreds of rural school grounds are a disgrace to American civilization and a source of untold moral and physical contamination. One of the prime requirements for a class-A rural school are toilet facilities which are entirely above criticism. Indoor, dry-earth toilets are not considered in this chapter as they are

very rare in rural schools. The laws of most states, or the rules of the state boards of health, give detailed descriptions of the construction of properly built outhouses. They


TUCK FOURTH FOLD IN THIS POCKET
The Health Exhibit
Is only one feature of the Educational Campaign financed by the Red Cross Christmas Seals.
SECOND FOLD
By Protecting your own health, you will contribute to the work of the—
Wisconsin Anti-Tuberculosis Association
Milwaukee, Wis.
FIFTH FOLD
FOLD. KEEP PRINTED SIDE OUT
FIRST
FOURTH FOLD
THIRD FOLD
Make your own drinking cup and avoid the danger of infection.
Paper Drinking Cup
TUCK FIFTH FOLD IN THIS POCKET

Courtesy of Anti-Tuberculosis Association

Making a paper drinking cup

It is best to use fairly, heavy smooth paper.

should be of ample size and secluded; and the buildings for the two sexes should be separated fifty or more feet. Every effort should be made to secure privacy. No markings of any kind should be tolerated. The houses should be

kept scrupulously clean. To this end the teacher must inspect them carefully every day.

Each outbuilding should be well-lighted by high-up windows which may be frosted. A ventilating shaft should extend from the vault up through the roof to insure good air movement. The vault should be of concrete, and if a cast-iron drawer with rings is used, the vault can be cleaned readily and as often as necessary. Adequate screens should be placed around each building so as to secure complete privacy. Doors and windows should also be screened. In this connection, the use of various varieties of vines should again be mentioned. An adequate supply of good-quality toilet paper should be regularly furnished. Children should be carefully instructed, the sexes separately, as to the proper use of the outbuildings. The right kind of a father may be asked to talk to the boys as often as necessary. The urinals in the boys' outbuilding should be kept in good condition at all times.

VIII. Problem of cleanliness. The same principles and practices of cleanliness which obtain in the best homes of the district are observed in every first-class rural school. In order to keep the building neat and clean, somebody will have to make frequent use of brooms, brushes, dust cloths, mops, soap, cleaning compound, and hot water. The building cannot be kept in suitable condition unless adequate appliances are provided. The building should be thoroughly scrubbed three or four times during the year and the floor mopped at least twice as many times. The floor should be made of three-inch maple flooring, well-matched, and then it should be oiled to keep down the dust. No sweeping should ever be done without the use of sweeping compound and enough of it. Floor push brushes are convenient and effective, but at least one good broom should also be pro-

vided. All dusting should be done with oiled dust cloths, and a dusting committee can be trained to render a necessary and useful service. Erasers should be cleaned daily, if possible outside of the schoolroom, and every effort should be made to keep dust out of the air of the room. Scrapers and coco-fiber or steel door mats are furnished in standard schools, to keep mud from being tracked in by pupils. In order to do the cleaning properly, pails, mops, and automatic wringers are needed. A kerosene stove may be used to heat the water. A good dust pan, ash pail, and shovel are among the needful equipment.

IX. Desks, chairs, and other furniture. The problem of seats and desks for the pupils is easily solved at the present time. The only quite satisfactory type is the individual steel desk with a separate seat of the swivel variety on a hollow steel pedestal. The front edge of the desk should overlap the seat by about three inches. The aisles should be eighteen inches wide, with a thirty-inch space next to the walls. Desks and seats of one size only should be in a row, and they should be so set that the light comes from left and rear only. About three sizes will be needed in the average country school, and the smallest ones should be placed on the outside. Desks and seats are now made in a very desirable brown wood finish, with an attractive harmonizing green color for the steel. The seating problem is a serious one and is either unsolved or only partially solved in most rural schools. In a first-class school each child has a seat and desk which fit him exactly, and thus physical injuries are prevented. Desks and seats should not be placed on strips, for so placed there is less likelihood of individual adjustments being made, and sweeping is usually much less effective. Some authorities recommend the Moultrop Movable Chair Desk, and many superintendents and teachers prefer these to the fixed type

here referred to. This writer does not personally prefer the movable type of seat and desk for rural schools.

A good shelf should be provided for the card-catalog case. These shelves should sit on strong brackets, and be properly painted, of course. Enough recitation settees should be furnished, of at least two sizes, to accommodate all the pupils of any class during class periods. The teacher's desk should be of good size with a large drawer in the middle and about four drawers on at least one side, all provided with keys. A rail to hold books should extend around the front and sides. The teacher requires a comfortable, substantial chair, and one or two other chairs should also be provided for visitors. A reliable eight-day clock of the regulator variety, costing about $8.00, should be fastened securely on the wall where all can see it. This clock should be regulated from week to week, so as to keep correct time. A good-sized pressed-paper-composition wastebasket costing about $4.00 is desirable, also. Doubtless the cook stove in a corner of the room or in the kitchen should be considered part of the necessary furniture.

X. Windows and window shades. Windows should be placed mainly on one side of the room so that light comes mostly from the left. Two windows in the rear of the room, high up so as not to injure the teacher's eyes, are not objectionable. No teacher or pupil should ever face a light, as it is sure to damage the eyesight. The correct lighting ratio is one square foot of window to five square feet of floor space. No windows should ever be placed in the front of the room or several feet beyond the front end of the left side. No windows should be found on the right side. Windows on the left side are now placed very close together with slender mullions between them, so as to reduce the chance of shadows from the light area. Windows, except the rear

ones, should come within about three and a half feet of the floor and should extend high up toward the ceiling. Most of the light should come from either the east or the west side. Light largely from either north or south is not correct or beneficial. The building should face the south. For evening meetings or for dark days a sufficient number of oil or gas lights should be furnished for the main room and for all entrances, cloakrooms, and auxiliary rooms. A first-class school is always well lighted, day or night. Electricity should be used wherever possible.

Probably the best window shades are made of a light shade of tan duck. This material may be mounted on an adjustable folding device or on rollers. If spring rollers are used, there should be two of them fastened in the middle of each window, one to roll up and one to roll down by means of pulley and cord. They should be made six to eight inches longer than the space they are to cover. Strong cords of adequate length, free from knots, are always provided. Shades should be somewhat translucent, and should be kept in repair at all times. They should be used only to shut out glaring light. All the light possible without injuring any child's eyes should be admitted. Teacher and pupils should learn the art of properly adjusting shades and spring rollers — an art which most people have never acquired. Every rural teacher should know how to tighten the tension of a weak roller spring. It is a simple matter to pull the shade way down, take the roller off the fixtures, roll up the curtain by hand, and then replace.

XI. Teaching aids and appliances. Such equipment as the following is necessary from an instructional point of view, and most of it is usually found in the better class of rural schools in every state: cyclopedias, dictionaries (a large one and several small ones), maps (including slated

maps of the state and of the United States), a large pendant globe and a small hand globe for the desk, a phonograph and several good records, a card-catalog case and cards, reading table and enough chairs, sets of dry and liquid measures, one or two good pointers, two or three hardwood yardsticks, teacher's plan book, sets of testing materials for mentality and achievement tests, toy money, a good-sized cloth blackboard on rollers, apparatus for nature study and agriculture, and a good collection of commercial, educational exhibits on flour, corn products, silk, rubber, etc. Every rural teacher should have a catalog from a reliable school-supply house, and then she should inform herself on quality and prices of various kinds of school equipment. All equipment should be kept in good condition and should be discarded when no longer in a state of usefulness.

XII. Playground equipment. In recent years school authorities have come to give increasing recognition to the place and value of play in any successful scheme of education. During the past fifteen years hundreds of rural school grounds in all parts of the country have been equipped with play apparatus which has added greatly to the joy of childhood and at the same time given added opportunities for physical, mental, and moral training. School boards will find it cheaper in the end to buy only the best materials at the start, and this plan will be much more likely to obviate accidents and injuries.

Every first-class rural school will have the playground equipped with the following pieces, at any rate: one or two strong, substantial swings; a steel, ball-bearing giant stride; two or three horizontal bars; one or two teeter boards, low down near the ground (no high teeter ladders, by any means); a well-built steel coaster slide of adequate length and height; a volley or basket ball and net; a sand bin

© Mitchell Manufacturing Company, Milwaukee

The Merry Whirl

This furnishes a great deal of healthful sport.

(about 8 by 12 ft. in size, with plenty of good clean sand for the little folks); a baseball diamond placed where those not playing will be safe; two good large, or fourteen-inch, playground balls, horsehide covers; and two or three bats. There is now a new merry-go-round for school children which is said to furnish an abundance of both fun and exercise. All apparatus must be kept in good repair all of the time. The teacher will need to inspect it frequently while she is engaged in supervision of play. She should often join in the play herself; that will be to her personal advantage as well as that of her pupils.

XIII. Miscellaneous equipment. Every school, of course, should have a *flag* and a good pole from which to fly it daily, if weather permits. The flag should be of wool bunting, and ought to be at least 5 by 8 ft. in size. It should be well cared for by some pupil or by the teacher. Such a flag will cost about $7.00. The flag pole should be set on the grounds and should be about 30 ft. high. Such a galvanized, hollow-steel pole, with proper attachments, will cost about $30.00. A flagstaff on the roof of the building is not so convenient or so satisfactory, as a rule. Every first-class school has a galvanized-iron *mail box* costing about $2.00. Often the name of the school is printed plainly on both sides of the box. The school may have a large bell in the belfry, but that is not at all necessary. A small hand bell, costing a couple of dollars, serves every purpose.

Not many schools are equipped with a *telephone* — that is, not many one-room rural schools. Many consolidated schools, however, are provided with this convenience, which may now be looked upon almost as a necessity. Every good school has one or two good *pencil sharpeners*. It pays to get a good one as it will last much longer and give better satisfaction. In many states a *snow shovel* is a necessity

and the board should see to it that a good one is furnished. In those states where the dairy industry is prominent a closed *Babcock Milk Tester* is desirable, if not an actual necessity. A first-class school has a workable *organ* or a small-sized *piano*, tuned, intended especially for schools. *Crayon* (including colored), *erasers*, *steel pens*, *ink*, and different kinds of *paper*, all of good quality, should be furnished by the school. The crayon should be dustless and the erasers should be made entirely of felt. It pays to buy the best crayon and erasers. To the above equipment the writer would also add a serviceable *typewriter*. A good rebuilt machine can now be purchased for a moderate sum of money. The teacher can use the typewriter in preparing carbon copies of assignments, and in other ways; and older pupils will secure valuable training in such important matters as form, neatness, etc. In the preparation of written language work the typewriter is a useful auxiliary tool which should not be overlooked.

XIV. Problems of beautification. In the northern states light shades or tones of tan or buff are suitable for the walls and light cream for the ceiling. In the southern states, or where there is more sunlight, it will be possible to use very mild tones of green and gray for the walls and a harmonious cream for the ceiling. The woodwork, including the wainscoting, if any, may be done in a somewhat darker shade of the wall color, all in harmonious blending. Only *flat* paint, that is, paint free from gloss, should ever be used, to eliminate the undesirable glare. Modern flat paint is washable. Three or four high-grade pictures are found on the walls in a first-class rural school — such pictures as The Mill, Spring, Horse Fair, Avenue of Trees, Knitting Shepherdess, or something equally good, and costing about $10.00 each when framed.

Group of children in a county normal practice department

Here are pupils in the first six elementary grades. Note the decorations and posted materials which the teacher has placed in the rear.

The *bulletin board* with light-tan burlap covering and border to match, holding the work of the children artistically arranged, can be a distinct addition to the general decorative effect of the room. In many schools the program has been done so artistically with either pen or printing outfit that it is a genuine ornamentation to the room. The blackboard should not be used for the program. Often teachers use the upper ten inches of a wide blackboard in the front of the room for a decorative strip done in colored crayon. Above this may be a strip of cork extending the length of the board, on which are placed Perry or other kinds of pictures, drawings by pupils, pictures of birds, leaves, etc. — all adding to the appearance of the room. If the window shades are a light-tan color, they will contribute notably to a pleasing interior. Often the sand table may be made decidedly beautifying, when arranged for Thanksgiving, Christmas, or other special occasion. Many teachers use house plants and flowers in window boxes in fall and spring with delightful effectiveness. All decorating should be rearranged from time to time so as to relieve monotony; and no jarring note, such as unsightly calendars, should be allowed to mar the beauty of the room.

XV. Problem of physical welfare. In every rural school of the first class the question of the child's health is given first consideration and the necessary equipment is provided. In this section will be brought together certain considerations in the way of appliances which must receive attention in order to place the school in class A. Mention has already been made in other connections of a thermometer, hygrometer, good well, sweeping compound, liquid soap, paper towels, toilet paper, wash basin or sink, and humidifier. A good thermometer can be purchased for about $1.50, and a reliable hygrometer may be obtained for $3.00. A hundred pounds of sweeping compound in a metal drum, enough to

WEIGHT—HEIGHT—AGE TABLE FOR BOYS

Height Inches	5 Yrs.	6 Yrs.	7 Yrs.	8 Yrs.	9 Yrs.	10 Yrs.	11 Yrs.	12 Yrs.	13 Yrs.	14 Yrs.	15 Yrs.	16 Yrs.	17 Yrs.	18 Yrs.	19 Yrs.
38	34	34													
39	35	35													
40	36	36													
41	38	38	38												
42	39	39	39	39											
43	41	41	41	41											
44	44	44	44	44											
45	46	46	46	46	46										
46	47	48	48	48	48										
47	49	50	50	50	50	50									
48		52	53	53	53	53									
49		55	55	55	55	55	55								
50		57	58	58	58	58	58	58							
51			61	61	61	61	61	61							
52			63	64	64	64	64	64	64						
53			66	67	67	67	67	68	68						
54				70	70	70	70	71	71	72					
55				72	72	73	73	74	74	74					
56				75	76	77	77	77	78	78	80				
57					79	80	81	81	82	83	83				
58					83	84	84	85	85	86	87				
59						87	88	89	89	90	90	90			
60						91	92	92	93	94	95	96			
61							95	96	97	99	100	103	106		
62							100	101	102	103	104	107	111	116	
63							105	106	107	108	110	113	118	123	127
64								109	111	113	115	117	121	126	130
65								114	117	118	120	122	127	131	134
66									119	122	125	128	132	136	139
67									124	128	130	134	136	139	142
68										134	134	137	141	143	147
69										137	139	143	146	149	152
70										143	144	145	148	151	155
71										148	150	151	152	154	159
72											153	155	156	158	163
73											157	160	162	164	167
74											160	164	168	170	171

PREPARED BY BIRD T. BALDWIN, PH.D., AND THOMAS D. WOOD, M.D.

These new Weight-Height-Age Tables, which are similar to the Wood Tables (formerly issued by the Child Health Organization of America), are the most accurate available.*

These tables should be used as a means of interesting the child in his growth, and as a factor in determining the child's health and nutrition.**

* *Representing a wide age group of presumably healthy children most of whom are native born. Tables for technical workers with detailed information can be secured from the American* CHILD HEALTH *Association.*

** *Encourage the annual physical examination of every child by a physician.*

(over)

Weight-height-age table — boys

WEIGHT—HEIGHT—AGE TABLE FOR GIRLS

Height Inches	5 Yrs.	6 Yrs.	7 Yrs.	8 Yrs.	9 Yrs.	10 Yrs.	11 Yrs.	12 Yrs.	13 Yrs.	14 Yrs.	15 Yrs.	16 Yrs.	17 Yrs.	18 Yrs.
38	33	33												
39	34	34												
40	36	36	36											
41	37	37	37											
42	39	39	39											
43	41	41	41	41										
44	42	42	42	42										
45	45	45	45	45	45									
46	47	47	47	48	48									
47	49	50	50	50	50	50								
48		52	52	52	52	53	53							
49		54	54	55	55	56	56							
50		56	56	57	58	59	61	62						
51			59	60	61	61	63	65						
52			63	64	64	64	65	67						
53			66	67	67	68	68	69	71					
54				69	70	70	71	71	73					
55				72	74	74	74	75	77	78				
56					76	78	78	79	81	83				
57					80	82	82	82	84	88	92			
58						84	86	86	88	93	96	101		
59						87	90	90	92	96	100	103	104	
60						91	95	95	97	101	105	108	109	111
61							99	100	101	105	108	112	113	116
62							104	105	106	109	113	115	117	118
63								110	110	112	116	117	119	120
64								114	115	117	119	120	122	123
65								118	120	121	122	123	125	126
66									124	124	125	128	129	130
67									128	130	131	133	133	135
68									131	133	135	136	138	138
69										135	137	138	140	142
70										136	138	140	142	144
71										138	140	142	144	145

PREPARED BY BIRD T. BALDWIN, PH.D., AND THOMAS D. WOOD, M.D.

When taking measurements, remove the child's outdoor clothing, shoes and coat. Take heights with a square, consisting of two flat pieces of wood joined at right angles (a chalk box will serve). The child is placed in a good erect position, with heels and shoulders against the wall or wide board, upon which has been marked or pasted an accurate measure. Age is taken to the nearest birthday.

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The most widely used weight-height-age table

last for two years, will not cost more than $2.50. Enough paper towels and toilet paper for an entire year need not cost more than $5.00 or $6.00. Country boys and girls are entitled to supplies of this kind as well as their city cousins.

A first-aid kit in a white enamel case can be had for $4.50. Larger and better outfits cost $10.00 to $15.00. These kits contain such supplies as gauze, absorbent cotton, bandages, swabs, splints, wooden applicators, tongue depressors, tweezers, iodine, petrolatum, spirits of ammonia, first-aid handbook, etc. The first-class school also has a hot lunch outfit — stove, cooking utensils, dishes, etc. Mention should be made here of health, or calisthenic-exercise, records also, whether for the Victrola or other make of phonograph. These records are very useful and educative. A weighing scale is not a necessity, but it is a valuable addition to the equipment. There should be several window ventilators, costing about 75¢ each. A mop wringer and bucket will cost from $3.00 to $5.00, and the mop itself, complete, about $1.00. It must be kept in mind that this chapter deals with a rural school of the first, or superior, class. If some of the money now squandered on cosmetics, candy, gum, tobacco, the movies, joy riding, etc., could be put into rural-school equipment, it would add tremendously to the happy school experiences of boys and girls.

XVI. Library — books — reading. In this first-class school will be found a good cyclopedia of about ten volumes, such as The World Book or Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia, costing nearly $60.00. There is also a large Webster's International or a Standard Dictionary and several of the smaller ones, such as Webster's Elementary and Secondary, or the Winston Simplified, elementary and advanced editions. In some states the smaller Standard dictionaries are used

extensively. Each child in the four upper grades should have one of these smaller books. A reading table with chairs is very desirable. A card catalog, with author, subject, and subject-analytic cards, all up to date, is a necessity. Suitable shelves for dictionary and card-catalog case must be provided. There should be a good supply of blank catalog cards and of materials for repairing books and torn leaves, such as transparent adhesive parchment, gummed cloth tape, silk-finish adhesive cloth, etc. A book repair outfit can be bought for 30¢. A good supply of book supports, costing 10¢ apiece, should be on hand.

In *Rural School Leaflet No. 3*, issued by the Bureau of Education in April, 1922, entitled "Modern Equipment for One-Teacher Schools," by Maud C. Newbury, we find the following at the end of a long list:

Texts: Modern texts in arithmetic, English, spelling, history, geography, hygiene, civics, and —

4 basic texts in reading through third grade.

2 basic texts in reading in other grades.

2 supplementary texts in reading per pupil of as many different kinds as there are pupils in the class for primary grades 1 to 3.

3 sets of geographical readers dealing with food, clothing, shelter, and descriptions of the continents.

1 set of 6 supplementary readers in history.

2 current magazines, containing juvenile material of literary excellence.

1 magazine containing an abundance of pictorial material for use in geography.

1 good farm paper.

1 copy for every child above third grade of an inexpensive weekly current event paper.

1 cabinet of arithmetic practice material in the fundamentals. (Cabinets arranged especially for one-room schools may be procured.)

3 standard reading tests per pupil for testing progress in reading. (Select type easily scored.)

1 copy for each child above second grade of an intelligence test (for helping to grade and properly organize one-teacher schools).

Hot lunch equipment. (See Bureau of Education's *Home Economics Circular No. 13*, by Henrietta Calvin, containing list of equipment.)

Library — containing 80 juvenile books, 10 for each grade.

The school should be supplied with the children's books on the State Reading Circle List, if there is one. The teacher should have a copy for her desk of every textbook used in the school, these to be supplied by the district. All books should be in good condition, or taken to the bindery for repair, or destroyed.

XVII. Between-recitation activities. It is now understood that *study* is a more important pupil activity than the old-time recitation. The sooner that lesson-hearing, mechanical, memoriter recitations disappear the better for all concerned. Every effort should be made to have the seat work, or the between-recitation activities, of the most profitable and educational type. In a rural school particularly, where there are so many grades and there is so much for the teacher to do, any educational equipment for the periods between classes is of especial importance. The teacher should have at hand all sorts of materials and appliances by means of which every child can be kept profitably busy all of the time. Part of such periods may be spent in enjoyable recreational reading. The teacher should plan deliberately for all between-recitation periods, including reading for pleasure.

In order to be fully prepared for the seat-work periods, the teacher will need at least the following equipment: drawing and art materials, such as crayolas, paints, paper, scissors,

paste, etc.; modern drill materials; a good hectograph and impression paper; carbon paper; colored construction papers; cardboard paper cutter; printing outfit; poster paper; plasticine or modeling clay; individual outline maps; rulers; phonic builders; sentence builders; number builders; picture and word matchers; chip board; oak tag. If the rural teacher will keep on hand a good supply of such materials, and perhaps others not mentioned, and if she knows how to use them to accomplish educational purposes, her teaching will be more scientific and effective and her problem of order and discipline will be better solved. A rural teacher needs such equipment and supplies more than any other teacher anywhere in this country. It is now possible for a rural teacher to secure silent reading helps which will materially aid in solving the problem of study. The teacher should get copies of three or four sets of first-class silent readers and the manuals which accompany them. The publishers are now putting out study and seat-work helps to accompany such readers, which will be of real service to rural teachers in particular. Write to the publishers asking them for descriptive literature and prices.

XVIII. Organization and attendance. A first-class rural school is in session nine months of the year. It begins generally on the Tuesday after Labor Day and closes about Memorial Day. There is usually a two-weeks vacation at Christmas time and another of one week early in the spring. The enrollment should usually be in the neighborhood of 75 per cent of the census list. Every child between six and fourteen years of age should ordinarily be in school. The average daily attendance in a high-grade rural school is about 90 per cent. The teacher follows the state course of study, her school is classified according to this course, and a neatly prepared program of classes, according to state

standards, is posted so that all can see it from any part of the room. A teacher who can maintain a first-class rural school is a person of unusual ability and should receive all the way from $100 to $150 per month.

XIX. The teacher is efficient. (1) In a first-class rural school the teacher is very likely to be a person of exceptional character or personality. In the first place, and of basic importance, there must be personal vitality and vigor, and good health with a surplus of nervous energy. If along with this physical strength and endurance we find good mentality — say an I. Q. of 125 — the basic conditions, at least, are present for strong school and community leadership. Character and personality, however, are not developed without experience. This successful teacher of a first-class rural school must have had many contacts with the life of men and women of affairs in order to develop judgment, poise, and skill in making human adjustments. It is wholly impossible to have a first-class rural school without a first-class teacher. As the teacher is, so is the school. Building and equipment do not make a school. A good teacher has, first of all, largeness of mind and spirit.

(2) An efficient teacher has good *order* — not pin-drop order, however — and such proper order she maintains with ease. The children are orderly because they want to be. There is an atmosphere of happy work in which all are coöperating to produce a truly democratic spirit of good will and helpfulness.

(3) In every good rural school the teacher spends a portion of the intermissions to *supervise the play*. Play is recognized as educational as well as recreational, and the teacher, for her own personal welfare, also spends at least some of her time on the playground nearly every day.

(4) There is ample evidence of *good housekeeping* as soon as

one enters the door. Evidently the janitor work has been well done and the room on the whole presents a neat, orderly appearance. Allowances must always be made for the litter and lack of order which necessarily accompany some kinds of school work. It is impossible to have everything spick and span in a school all of the time, as it certainly is impossible in the home, as well.

(5) This good teacher guards her own *health* and that of her pupils constantly. She knows that health is of fundamental importance, and so she knows and observes the rules of the state board of health and of other authorities. She is always watchful of such matters as ventilation, water supply, signs of sickness or contagious disease, etc. She sees the need for cleanliness and for all sorts of sanitary precautions. She herself possesses health, knowledge, intelligence, wisdom, and both her attitude towards health and her spirit in general are what they should be.

(6) She makes *daily preparation* for every teaching exercise without overdoing the matter. She knows the subject matter, she prepares study questions, she teaches pupils how to use the library and reference books. In short, without any ostentation, and without undue fatigue, she is always prepared for each exercise. The author has known many rural teachers who were thus ready for the supervisor any day in the week, and moreover, they were cheerful, and healthy, and happy in doing and in living in this way.

(7) The efficient teacher necessarily follows the state *course of study*. She has the state manual on her desk at all times and uses it in determining the topics to present and the class procedures to use.

(8) Her *program* is posted on a large sheet of manila tag board, about 24 by 36 inches in size, and she makes this program her guide from hour to hour, without making it a

fetish. She works the program but doesn't let the program work her. If she is not "hearing a class" recite at a given minute or period, she has a good reason for it. This good teacher always has good reasons for what she does, and even better than that, she is reasonable.

(9) Her work is *made real;* that is, it is connected up or related to the real world of men and women. She is not a worshiper of the textbook, because she knows the text is only a means to an end. In order to make her work real, the efficient rural teacher does much objective, concrete teaching.

(10) Effective teaching demands suitable and adequate *assignment* of study and work tasks. The chief aim of good assignment is thoroughly to prepare pupils for independent, self-reliant work and study at their seats or elsewhere. An assignment may be made in a minute or it may take a whole teaching period. The test of a teacher's assignments is whether or not the children are profitably engaged upon genuine, personally interesting problems. If the children know exactly what to do and exactly how to do it, the assignment is successful, otherwise not. The assignments of the teacher in a first-class school are motivating, adequate, effective.

(11) In every good school the children read a good deal and the books of the *library* are in constant use. The teacher takes especial pains to instruct pupils in the use of books, and entire class periods may often be spent in this way, to great advantage. Teacher and pupils know and use the library regularly in a first-class rural school.

(12) If the teacher is efficient, the children are not wasting their time at their seats. A skillful teacher knows how to direct study and all *between-recitation* activities, including successful study reading and recreational reading.

Courtesy Florence Slown Hyde

An evening meeting in a country schoolhouse

The audience will enjoy an hour of entertaining motion pictures from the University Extension Bureau.

(13) Every good school has a *good spirit* and is known and advertised by this emotional atmosphere which dominates it from day to day. The good spirit of the good school is caught from the good spirit of the good teacher.

(14) If there is evidence of the following *symptoms*, or even some of them, it is certain that something is radically wrong with the teacher's leadership. In fact, there can be no leadership with these conditions prevailing: idleness, impertinence and back talk, uncalled-for whispering, downright mischievous conduct of any kind, continual aimless moving about, personal-note writing, making noises with the feet or scraping of shoes, mumbling or making low audible sounds, gazing around the room, loud talking or noisy bodily movements.

XX. Teacher and community. Although the teacher need not actually live in the district, it is vital that she consider herself an active coöperating member of the community, one who is willing to do her share to build up the neighborhood in social and civic ways. She may not even board in the district, but she has the interests of all the people and children at heart. She takes an active part in the parent-teacher association; she has successful mothers' meetings at her school two or three times during the year; she has at least two good public evening programs during the year to which everybody is invited; she visits some of the homes, where she is made welcome; she may have a school exhibit day or an afternoon when the work of the school is shown, a short program given, and light refreshments served; she takes an interest in, even if she does not actually sponsor, various boys' and girls' clubs, at least one of each; she sees that school patrons have the privilege of a circulating library; and in all her relationships with people they are made to feel that she is one of them and that she is their true friend.

Class Discussion Questions

1. If you have first-class, or superior, or class-A, rural schools in your state, find out what is necessary in order to secure this distinction. What reward does the school or teacher get?

2. Have you ever visited a really excellent rural school? If so, write a 500-word description of it.

3. Describe an ideal school site for a country school.

4. What building material do you prefer for a country schoolhouse? If of wood, how would you have it painted?

5. Name all the equipment which you would like to have in a school kitchen, if you had all the money you needed to spend for it.

6. Find out all you can about hyloplate blackboard: who makes it, where made, length and width, cost, how to put it on, how to keep it in good order. Would you prefer to have it black or a desirable light green in color?

7. Find out how to operate the heating and ventilating system in a rural school. Make out a list of explicit rules or directions for doing it successfully. See the writer's chapter on heating and ventilating in his *Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher*.

8. Tell exactly how to make paper cups. Why are these preferable? Demonstrate the making of them for your class. What is the best kind of paper?

9. Where can you get well water tested in your state without cost to the district? Find out how to send the sample and all about it. The school board must usually assume responsibility in this matter.

10. Make a complete list of all the equipment you will need to keep the schoolhouse clean and neat. Compute the total cost.

11. Look up cost of buying up-to-date single, adjustable steel seats and desks for a country school of twenty pupils. How many sizes will you need? Send to some reliable seating company for illustrated literature.

12. How many lights are needed for the evening meeting? If you do not have electricity, what will you use? Find out the total cost.

13. Make a list of twenty educational commercial exhibits which you would like for your school. For what purposes can these be used?

14. Have you seen the Mitchell "Betterbilt Merry Whirl"? The manufacturers say it is safe and popular. Write for catalog to Mitchell Mfg. Co., 1804 Forest Home Avenue, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

15. Look up the etiquette of the flag. Does your state tell you when and how to display the flag? Write out ten good suggestions relative to the correct patriotic use of the flag.

16. Name four pictures which you would like in your school. Tell how they should be framed and hung.

17. Name all the purposes for which you would use a bulletin board.

18. Tell how to read an hygrometer.

19. How can you keep the temperature of your room between 65° and 70° F.?

20. Get the names of four series of silent readers together with names and addresses of publishers. Find out what provision is made for individual study, or between-recitation work.

Useful Supplementary Readings

1. Ayers, M., Williams, J. F., and Wood, T. D. — *Healthful Schools;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1918.

2. Betts, G. H., and Hall, O. E. — *Better Rural Schools;* Bobbs-Merrill Company. 1914.

3. Butterworth, J. E. — *Improving the School-Building Facilities of One- and Two-Teacher Districts through Measurement;* New York State College of Agriculture, Cornell University. Extension Bulletin No. 52, June, 1922.

4. Challman, S. A. — *The Rural School Plant;* The Bruce Publishing Company. 1917.

5. Hillegas, M. B., Briggs, T. H., and Sixty Other Writers — *The Classroom Teacher;* The Classroom Teacher, Inc. 1928. Twelve volumes containing an abundance of the

latest and best on teaching procedures. See section on "Standardization of Rural Schools," by Dr. G. A. Works.

6. Dressler, F. B. — *School Hygiene;* The Macmillan Company. 1913. — *American School Buildings;* Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1924, No. 17.

7. Frances, May E. — *Regulations for Standardizing Common Schools;* State Department of Public Instruction, Iowa. 1925.

8. Holton, E. K., and Strickland, V. L. — *A Score Card for Rural Schools;* Kansas State Agriculture College Bulletin. June, 1918.

9. Lathrop, Edith A. — *The Improvement of Rural Schools by Standardization;* Bureau of Education, Rural School Leaflet No. 32, 1925.

10. Lathrop, Edith A. — "Honors for Improved Rural Schools"; *School Life,* 5 : 13–14, September 15, 1920.

11. Lathrop, Edith A. — *Improving Rural Schools by Standardization;* in Final Report of Committee on Rural Education of National Council of Education of the National Education Association.

12. Lowth, Frank J. — *Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher;* The Macmillan Company. 1926.

13. Mueller, A. D. — "Standardization of Rural Schools"; *Journal of Rural Education,* 3 : 225–31, January, 1924.

14. Newbury, Maud C. — *Modern Equipment for One-Teacher Schools;* Bureau of Education, Rural School Leaflet No. 3, April, 1922.

15. Schmidt, H. W. — *Wisconsin Rural School Standards;* Department of Public Instruction. 1925.

16. Showalter, N. D. — *A Handbook for Rural School Officers;* Houghton Mifflin Company. 1920.

17. Taylor, C. W., and Baldridge, Chloe C. — *Requirements for Standardization of Rural Schools;* Department of Public Instruction, Nebraska. 1927.

CHAPTER XVII

PROFESSIONAL AND PERSONAL OBJECTIVES

I. What she owes her profession. In the first place the country teacher should realize that teaching is more than a mere trade. A teacher cannot afford to belittle herself or her calling by considering herself engaged in the work of a common, indifferent laborer. She should appreciate that she is dealing with spiritual forces and values, not merely with wood, or stone and mortar. Even the artisan may dignify his work by harboring a high conception of its place and worth. The teacher owes it to her profession to dignify it by always respecting it. She should be proud to be a teacher, and look upon teaching as a noble calling, even though she teaches only two, three, or four years. The rural teacher should feel that she belongs to a nation-wide and a world-wide group of sincere workers, enrolling some of the noblest men and women of America and of other countries. The rural teacher owes it to her profession never to belittle it by any unbecoming, unethical, or unprofessional conduct. As long as she is in the teaching business she is in duty bound to give the best of her ability, her time, her energy, and her loyalty to her profession.

II. Loyalty to one's associates. There may not be as much of jealousy and backbiting among rural teachers as we find among city teachers, but there is certainly too much for the good of the profession. It never pays to speak disparagingly of one's predecessor, no matter what her shortcomings may have been. If you cannot say something

commendatory, you can at least maintain a dignified silence. A rural teacher with a genuine spirit of Christian tolerance, magnanimity, and generosity will speak kindly of all her associates. She will not gossip about any one's weaknesses or deficiencies. On the other hand, she will try to be friendly with all, thinking kindly even of those who do not show a good spirit toward her. A truly charitable and forgiving attitude bespeaks gentility in either man or woman in any of the relations of life. Faithfulness and constancy mark the conduct of the teacher who is not difficult to get along with. Such people are greatly needed in this world of human contacts and adjustments, not only in the business of teaching, but in all walks of life.

III. Attending meetings. One of the sure ways of judging a teacher's professional spirit is by her attitude toward teachers' meetings of various kinds. There are state, county, and local group gatherings, and any rural teacher advertises herself in no small degree by the way in which she looks upon these meetings, by the fact of her presence or absence, and of her willingness to coöperate. The author has known many young rural teachers who were willing to spend a considerable sum of money, even the first year of teaching, to attend the inspiring state meeting at the metropolis or some other center of the state. They were enthusiastic over the fact that they could mingle with teachers from all over the state, and they went home with the feeling that they had been lifted to higher social and professional levels. If a teacher stays away from meetings habitually, or if she complains of what she calls the imposition of meetings, or if she is evidently not interested in the programs, she is surely marking herself as a teacher without proper professional spirit or pride. Every rural teacher should plan to attend meetings and to take part or in any case to be an

interested listener. Money spent in this way is actually an investment which will pay good personal dividends.

IV. Reading — required and otherwise. Every progressive doctor, lawyer, or clergyman finds it necessary to read good books pertaining to his profession; for in these and other professions, as well as in business and industry, ideas are constantly changing and new ways of doing things are being discovered from time to time. Likewise, any teacher who really desires to do successful up-to-date work will find it necessary to read several new books each year. In one state each rural teacher must read three such books during the year as a certificate requirement, but many teachers read several more than the required number. Buying some really good book now and then is a certain indication of the right professional spirit. Some rural teachers never buy books. They borrow them and read them only because legally required to do so. A teacher can readily be judged by her reading tastes and by her reading habits. A professionally minded rural teacher reads teachers' books because she likes to read them. She reads them for information and for inspiration.

V. Securing a position. Teachers differ markedly in their business ability, and this manifests itself nowhere more conspicuously than in the methods by which desirable positions are sought. In order to open up the question, perhaps a brief, well-written businesslike letter addressed to the clerk or board will be best. But usually it will be better later to see all members of the board personally. A teacher who is really anxious to secure a certain position should not hesitate to spend some time and money in going after it. She may need to telephone repeatedly and to use a car in order to carry on her negotiations. In applying for a school the teacher should consider all of the conditions —

the kind of school board, the building, the equipment, the number and character of the pupils, the boarding place, janitor work, getting home, and all else. It will be wise to find out quite fully about the success or failure of the preceding teacher. In no case should any teacher underbid or in any way try to undermine the present teacher. If there is not a vacancy, it will be entirely unprofessional for any teacher desiring the position to try to create a vacancy. Everything should be "square and aboveboard." Be businesslike in your dealings with the board, your landlady, and others. Expect to pay for what you get and to pay promptly; but see to it also that you get a square deal yourself.

VI. The teacher as a student. The teacher expects her pupils to study and to get their lessons. It will have a most salutary effect upon her own mind and conscience if she also does some genuine studying herself every day. Some teachers seem to be students naturally. They have always had the habit of really studying, in both high school and normal school. But there are others who are not students at all. They do not have the attitude or the habit of genuine students. Such teachers can never really inspire boys and girls to want to know the truth for its own sake, nor really to desire to master subject matter. If a rural teacher can be doing some studying on her own account, aside from the work of her school, she will find it making a big difference in her attitude toward her own work. Some rural teachers take correspondence courses with some state normal or state university. This is an admirable thing to do if such work does not interfere with the regular school duties of the teacher, or in any way injure her health.

VII. General *vs.* social intelligence. In her business, social, and professional relationships the teacher's entire

personality, her native mental ability, her physical energy, her social intelligence and consciousness — all her mental, moral, and physical background — will count most vitally, and will determine her success or her failure. A teacher's contacts with her fellow workers and her attitude toward the teaching profession will be the net result of her personal reactions. Far too often has the teaching profession failed to enlist the services of high or even average mentalities. Although general intelligence is far from being the only factor, it still remains true that the I. Q. of any teacher cannot usually fall much below 110 if good work is expected. However, given a fair degree of general intelligence, such qualities as address, tact, sympathy, leadership — factors in what may be called social intelligence — seem to have a greater bearing upon the general teaching outcome and influence than anything else. The professionally minded, successful teacher usually has, it may be stated with considerable confidence, at least average general intelligence, good social sense, and a forceful, winning personality.

VIII. The beginner and her fellow teachers. Every beginning teacher must get her experience somewhere in some school. We were all beginners once, but some of us find it difficult to remember that and to realize it adequately. Older teachers might very well be charitable toward the beginner and be willing to give her a chance to get some experience. As a matter of fact, we all have the inalienable right to make a few mistakes while we are learning. It cannot be expected that the beginner will do as well the first year as later. She is learning, growing, developing. For one thing, she is getting more maturity, and quite likely added wisdom will come with increase of age. The beginner may well be modest and unassuming, but even the experienced teacher cannot afford to become unduly self-satisfied. The beginner

may have the advantage of knowing about the latest procedures. She is recently from the normal, but she must remember that she needs to keep on studying if she is to do well. Daily preparation is an absolute necessity. Let the older teacher learn something from the new recruit, and let the eighteen-year-old beginner take advantage of the experience of her older associates when possible.

IX. Loyalty to the preparatory school. Some teachers promptly forget the school and the faculty from which they got their training; others never do, even after long years of absence. It seems that the more professionally minded alumnae are the ones who have the most loyalty. This is not always true, but at least the socially minded, the friendly folks, are the ones who manage some way to keep in touch with the old school. Our loyalty, our faithfulness, our constancy to elemental goodness and truth — well, that is what sets us apart as made, perhaps, of somewhat finer material. Loyalty and sincerity are distinguishing attributes of every high-minded teacher, and among the desirable loyalties is that of fidelity or constancy to one's alma mater. Every good teacher-training institution has a thriving alumnae association, and the graduate shows her sterling worth there also by being a faithful member of this organization. In this connection the teacher may well read Chapter XI in *An Introduction to Teaching* by Bagley and Keith.[1]

X. Standards of personal conduct. This is the age of the "flapper" and of "jazz" music. The jazz spirit is in the air, and it is not to be wondered at that we find flapper teachers who prefer jazz orchestras to the most finished music of symphony orchestras from New York,

[1] Bagley, W. C., and Keith, J. A. H. — *An Introduction to Teaching;* The Macmillan Company. 1924.

Boston, Chicago, or Minneapolis. The flapper is usually known by her loud dress, by her lavish use of cosmetics, by her generally conspicuous bearing. Many flapper girls, for some reason, turn out, however, to be very good teachers and mothers indeed, in spite of their erratic experiences and associations. So far as the teacher is concerned, is there not, at any rate, a happy medium of sense and seemliness? Have we not a right to expect something a little higher and better in standards of conduct in the teacher than we do in the extreme flapper? Certainly, teachers should be granted the privilege of enjoying life in their own way. We can favor a good deal of freedom for teachers, but we cannot indorse coarseness, vulgarity, or any general looseness of conduct which most parents do not wish their boys and girls to imitate. The public schools have much to do with shaping the character and conduct of the present generation of boys and girls.

XI. Making and breaking the contract. Some teachers who insist most on having a written contract are the first to break it on the slightest provocation. Teachers are supposedly teaching respect and reverence for law and order in their schools. However, do these teachers, who may do good teaching, all realize that upholding the inviolability of contracts is one of the fundamental rights and duties of American citizenship? It is right and proper for a teacher to ask for a written contract, although the word of the average board is doubtless entirely to be depended upon. It is probably best for each party to have a contract, which should specify every necessary item of agreement. The contract should be signed by all the members of the board and by the teacher. When the teacher signs her name, she should feel that she is then morally as well as legally bound to keep her contract. If she asks to be released, she should

not become offended if the board decides not to let her off. Most boards will release her if she has a first-class reason, but the teacher should expect to keep her contract unless unforeseen exigencies make it practically impossible for her to do so. Teachers and boards in several states can now find printed forms of contracts prepared in accordance with the statutes of the particular state, and such printed forms should be used.

XII. Artist or artisan: which? An artist has high and worthy ideals and more or less of originality and creative ability; an artisan is a handicraftsman who has greater or less skill, but solely on the plane of handwork. An artist works out spiritual values and ends in some material realm such as painting, sculpture, literature, and the like. A teacher should be both an artist and an artisan, though many teachers are only artisans. The teacher's work has to do with spiritual things, with the development of the personalities of boys and girls, but too many teachers do not idealize their daily task. They live too much in the realm of the physical and the material. They seem not to sense the beauty and the glory of the human soul. Every teacher needs to be a good craftsman, to be sure, but more than that, an artist also who places spirit above matter. There are too many mere sawers of wood and hewers of stone in the teaching craft and profession. The best teachers are always, to a greater or less degree, artistic in their vision and artistic in their execution. If a teacher is only an artisan, we may well wonder if she has not gotten into the wrong field of work. We have all known carpenters, barbers, yes, janitors, with the vision and fineness of spirit of the real artist. They do their work with artistic idealism and finish. On the other hand, there are too many teachers who teach children as one would saw wood. An artist

teacher glorifies and beautifies her daily work, and brings real joy to the hearts of boys and girls. Let us pray for more artist teachers.

XIII. The teacher's reaction to the supervisor. Supervision is here to stay, although there are teachers who do not see any good in it. If supervision is of the right sort and if the supervisor is imbued with the right spirit, only improvement of our schools can be the result. In some states there is very little supervision even to-day, but in other states the visits of the supervisor are becoming more frequent and more helpful. A teacher advertises her personality by the way she reacts to the supervisor. She may resent the supervision and look upon it as merely a meddling intrusion upon her work, or she may welcome the visit of the supervising teacher and get all the good she can out of it. It is the unprepared, shiftless time server who will find the visit of the supervisor a source of irritation and nervous dread. The teacher who is doing her best should have no fears. She should welcome the supervisor as any courteous hostess would a visitor in her own home, give her a chair, offer to hang up her coat, hand her the register, and then calmly and cheerfully go on with her work. Be natural, be good-natured, be polite, take it all as a matter of course, and strive to get all the benefit you can from the visit of the supervisor.

XIV. Problem of salaries. The average salary for rural teachers in the United States is even now altogether too low. It is still less than $800, and the average school year is less than eight months. In one state the minimum legal salary is $75.00 per month; in another state the minimum yearly salary is approximately $1200. Living conditions vary greatly in different states; also the cost of living. In some localities the legal qualifications are altogether too low, and

low salaries, of course, accompany low standards of certification. On the one hand, any rural teacher negotiating for a position should not sell out too cheaply; but on the other hand, she should consider the case for the board and the district, as well. If the author had his way, every really worthy rural teacher in this country would receive a wage high enough so that it would be possible to save at least 25 per cent of the salary. In many town and city communities teachers are now receiving something like an adequate wage. Increase of standards for rural schools will bring about increase of salaries, but we are still making slow progress. No matter what the salary, the teacher should render the greatest service of which she is capable, for therein lies the opportunity for growth and progress. Some teachers think that, because the pay is small, they need give no more than they are paid for, thus preventing their own advancement in the profession.

XV. Her obligations to herself. If any teacher is to be true to her profession and true to her school, she must first be good to herself. This does not mean selfish thought for her own interests; it simply means practical wisdom and prudence. Health, strength, vitality, and suitable mental and moral adjustment are prime prerequisites to all fine endeavor and to all really valuable service in this world. The young woman teacher unmistakably owes it to herself to take good care of herself. She cannot possibly do this unless she knows and cheerfully obeys the well-recognized laws of health in diet, in sleep, in recreation, and in getting enough of fresh air and sunlight. This young girl owes it to herself to keep on developing mentally, morally, and physically. Such development will not go forward without exercise of mind and spirit as well as body. Our young woman owes it to herself, in some way, to get a fair and

correct view of her duties to herself, to her fellow men, and to her God, if she is to be a happy and efficient member of society. Any teacher who is out of joint with her associates or with her situation in life cannot do good work. In some way she must adjust herself so that there is no worry and so that she, in some degree at least, is the source of inspiration and light to her boys and girls.

XVI. Keeping up with the times. To keep abreast of the advances in her profession, the teacher will need to do more than merely bank on her diploma from the normal school. Graduation from the training institution signified only the *commencement*, as we term the occasion. To keep up with the times, a teacher will need to do at least some reading and thinking about her school and her professional problems each day. If a teacher really grasps the situation, she will have problems. If she has no problems, it is likely that she is at a standstill professionally. In our day any live teacher can get all kinds of helps in solving her problems. There are books and magazines of all types and varieties. There are meetings in which she can hear expert advice from men and women who know. In many counties bulletins are now sent out each month and special circulars from time to time. Most excellent manuals are published by practically all of the states. To keep up with the times, a teacher must be curious to learn more no matter whether she has taught one year or ten. A genuine desire to know more will enable any teacher to keep up with the times.

XVII. Magazines: good, bad, and indifferent. Every rural teacher should take, pay for, and read regularly the state school journal and probably one or two other monthly teachers' magazines. One might mention the names of a half-dozen helpful journals with whose merits the rural teacher could profitably acquaint herself. In order to use

any school journal rationally the teacher should have some basic principles by which she can judge of the value of the material presented. She may well consider the "ear marks" of good publications by proposing some such questions as these for the passing of judgment: Is the material usable? Is it reliable? Is it attractive? Is it important? Does it correlate with sound educational objectives? Is it merely of transitory interest and value, or does it have permanent worth? These questions and others will suggest to the teacher the need for some thoughtful study of the problem.

Some magazines are filled with catchy, often attractively illustrated devices, and many of them are not worth the paper they are printed on. A teacher who takes up with every fad of the hour cannot truly develop the minds and hearts of boys and girls. However, the magazine, as it comes each month, is suggestive, and while it need not be read from cover to cover, its general contents should be known to the teacher. By all means note what the advertisers have to offer and write to them for their free sample materials or for their illustrated catalogs and price lists. A collection of the commercial-educational material, put out by large manufacturing concerns, has been found of value in teaching geography, agriculture, and other subjects. A rural teacher will do well to take some standard popular magazine as well, and there are several good ones being published at the present time.

XVIII. Gossips and gossiping. A gossip is a person who talks in a familiar, idle way about other people's affairs, and there is altogether too much of that kind of talk among all classes of people. This tattling and prating about personal weaknesses and scandals usually does harm, and a teacher cannot afford to indulge in the pernicious practice.

It is a habit which soon grows to an alarming extent and does an increasing amount of damage to the teacher herself and to others. A teacher will do well never to be the bearer of idle tales. She should learn the art of discreet silence and cultivate the more gracious habit of saying kind and generous things about people, and particularly about her fellow teachers. It is entirely possible to root out the evil habit of being a scandal-monger by cultivating the opposite habit of being a bearer of pleasing, complimentary tidings about one's associates.

XIX. County *esprit de corps*. *Esprit de corps* is the spirit binding together the members of an organization. The spirit of good fellowship or comradeship should grow and develop among teachers of a common locality. Even starting with very little of this feeling of a community of interests and of common professional aims and standards, the change to a higher level may take place gradually but surely year by year, until it becomes a very noticeable element in the successful conduct of the schools of a county. If the teachers of a county can cultivate the conviction that individual effort and success are bound up in a coöperative way with the success of all the schools of the county, that personal conviction will go a long way in promoting an effective system of schools. Conscious efforts to promote a good spirit of coöperation and fellowship will pay in happier and better teachers, and in the increased general efficiency of the schools.

XX. Visitors and visiting days. Many rural schools, as well as schools in urban communities, have few visitors throughout the year, and for various reasons. In many districts there is small interest in the school on the part of parents and it sometimes happens that teachers do not welcome visitors. They have not learned the fine art of

being gracious hostesses. The condition will depend largely upon the personality of the teacher. If she is a socially minded person, with a kindly and courteous attitude toward all people, the chances are that in her school there will be visitors from time to time. A rural teacher should cultivate the ability and the art of being a pleasing hostess. She should invite the people of her district to her school and invite them repeatedly. A good way to start this is by having a mothers' meeting at the end of the first month of school. If on this occasion the teacher makes everything pleasant for the mothers, they will come again. The teacher needs to take especial pains to be friendly in spite of any antagonistic feelings which some parents may have. It is an old saying and a true one that if you would have friends you yourself must be friendly.

On some school day during the year the teacher should become a visitor herself and go to some school where she can, perhaps, learn new and better ways of doing things. If she can visit two or three schools, all the better. All visitors to schools anywhere should be quiet and do nothing to disturb the school in any way. It is usually best to take a seat in the rear of the room and to refrain from all talking while classes are going on. It happens occasionally that a visitor does not show real courtesy, but it is inexcusable for a teacher, at any rate, to commit such an offense.

XXI. Salient objectives in training teachers. In the successful prosecution of any enterprise definite goals are highly desirable. Objectives are determined by the nature of the task to be accomplished. In teacher training, the normal school should offer opportunities and occasions for the development of requisite knowledge, attitudes, and skills. Rural teaching is a special field requiring particular knowledge, attitudes, and skills. In order to adapt the

training to the particular demands of the rural school, the faculty of the normal school should try definitely to visualize the services of the rural teacher. A one-year course, it is hardly necessary to say, is too short a period for effective training of the individual student.

From the long list of objectives only four will be selected for consideration here: In the *first* place, students should get some adequate conception of the meaning of education as related to experience. They should know that education means change, and that such change is impossible without response to environment. Education is growth and development, made possible by the reaction of the individual to the varied situations (including the purposeful school situations) in which he finds himself.

The *second* objective which seems vital relates to personality. The young teacher needs to have practice in the analysis of personality, and she needs particularly to realize that it is possible for her to change her own personality. Personality is the sum total of one's ideas, ideals, and habits, and all of these can be definitely modified — not overlooking the fact that one's native endowment may offer a more or less favorable field for development.

The *third* objective should be defined in terms of genuine study, thinking of the term study in its widest meaning and application. The nature of study and daily practice in the various study procedures should constitute one of the definite ends of professional training. Students come from high schools where subject matter has, perhaps, been stressed rather than the development of the individual. Much time needs to be taken in the normal school in arriving at some proper realization of what it is to study, and whole periods should be spent in developing facility in study through the use of the study-recitation and in other ways.

A *fourth* objective has to do with the development of a right professional attitude or spirit. No pains should be spared to initiate the young teacher into the noble fraternity, where loyal coöperation and professional pride are essential characteristics of the individual. Through the reading of professional books and magazines and through contact with the normal faculty a deep interest in the work of the teacher can be developed, which will hold over during all the days to follow.

Class Discussion Questions

1. With what material does the teacher deal? Does this place her work in a somewhat different realm than that of the carpenter, for example?

2. Look up *loyalty* in the dictionary. Why is loyalty a basic virtue? Read Bagley and Keith's discussion in their *Introduction to Teaching*.

3. What will loyalty to one's associates prompt a teacher to do? Not to do?

4. Name the different meetings which a country teacher should attend during the year. How much money do you think she should be expected to spend in this way?

5. Name ten good books which it would pay a country teacher to read. See bibliography in the author's *Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher*, pp. 547–553. Check off several which you have read.

6. Write a letter applying for a school, making it short and businesslike. What about paper, envelope, and form of the letter? How shall you get a reply?

7. How can a teacher learn about vacancies? What should you learn about a school before you apply for it?

8. In what way can a teacher always remain a student as long as she teaches? Who is a student, and what is the student attitude?

9. Distinguish between general intelligence and social intelli-

gence. Will you need something of both in order to succeed? How does a teacher manifest her social intelligence?

10. What should be the attitude of a beginner toward her fellow teachers of the county?

11. Have you been loyal to the school where you were trained? How have you shown this loyalty?

12. What sort of conduct is intolerable on the part of a teacher? May a teacher do as she pleases outside of school hours?

13. If you are a minor, can the board hold you to your contract? Does that have anything to do with your moral obligation? Under what circumstances might a teacher be justified in asking the board to release her?

14. Get a standard printed contract and read it carefully. Can you keep all of the requirements? Name all the items which you think should go into a contract.

15. May an artisan, like a janitor, say, do an artistic piece of work? Does a teacher have the work of both an artisan and an artist to do every day? Specify by way of illustration.

16. How can you help being timid and nervous when the supervisor visits your school? What do you owe to the supervisor and what to yourself in this matter of nervousness?

17. Why should every teacher be "good" to herself? Tell some ways in which some teachers do not give themselves a square deal.

18. Name several things any teacher needs to do in order to keep up with the times. Should she read a daily paper? A good monthly magazine? Should she hear good music? See a high-grade movie now and then? Why?

19. A rural teacher can hardly keep her self-respect unless she takes, pays for, and reads at least one good teachers' magazine. Name two such journals, their publishers, and the subscription prices.

20. Look up *esprit de corps* in a good dictionary. How can you help to foster a good teaching spirit in your county?

21. Plan to have a visiting day. Ask your board to let you off. What do you wish to see and why? Tell how to make your visiting day a profitable one.

Useful Supplementary Readings

1. Bagley, W. C. — *Classroom Management;* The Macmillan Company. 1917.

2. Bagley, W. C., and Keith, J. A. H. — *An Introduction to Teaching;* The Macmillan Company. 1924.

3. Burton, W. H. — *Supervision and the Improvement of Teaching;* D. Appleton and Company. 1924.

4. Cody, Frank — "Professional Consciousness"; in *School and Society,* 18 : 384, September 29, 1923.

5. Dearborn, N. H. — *An Introduction to Teaching;* D. Appleton and Company. 1925.

6. Frasier, G. W., and Armetrout, W. D. — *An Introduction to Education;* Scott, Foresman and Company. 1927.

7. Milner, Florence — *The Teacher;* Scott, Foresman and Company. 1912.

8. Moore, M. E. — *Parent, Teacher, and School;* The Macmillan Company. 1923.

9. Patri, Angelo — *A Schoolmaster of the Great City;* The Macmillan Company. 1920.

10. Stark, W. E. — *Every Teacher's Problems;* American Book Company. 1922.

11. Walsh, M. J. — *Teaching as a Profession;* Henry Holt Company. 1926.

APPENDIX

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS AND SUGGESTIONS

A. Evaluation of Physical Plant [1]

S. F. No. 1107–1921. Approved as to Form by Dept. of Efficiency. 1734. Form No. 84—2–18–26—6M.

STATE OF WASHINGTON
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
STANDARD SCHOOL
RATING CARD
FOR
WASHINGTON RURAL SCHOOLS

(To be filled out by County Superintendent after visit and inspection)

———

.....County.
Visited....., 19.....
District No..... Rated.....
Name of School.....
Name of Teacher or Principal.....
Address of Teacher or Principal.....
.....

County Superintendent

[1] This standard school rating card for rural schools is printed here through courtesy of The Washington State Department of Education. This card is in use at the present time in the state of Washington.

I. Building

	Maximum Points		Allowed by Co. Supt.
1. 15 square feet of floor space and 200 cubic feet of air space for each pupil	2		.....
2. Ventilated by satisfactory system	5		.....
3. Ceiled or plastered and no leaks	1		.....
4. Paint outside and inside in first-class condition	2		.....
5. Vestibule and good doors, furnished with locks and keys	1		.....
6. No broken windows	1		.....
7. Windows one sixth of floor space	2		.....
8. Windows on left and rear of pupils only	5		.....
9. Windows well supplied with good shades	1	(20)	.....

II. Equipment

1. Patent desks of at least three sizes	1		.....
2. Patent desks, if single	1		.....
3. Teacher's desks	1		.....
4. Good blackboard, fitted with chalk troughs, suitable crayons and erasers, at least 20 linear feet per room	1		.....
5. Ample equipment for primary work	1		.....
6. Library approved by county superintendent	3		.....
7. Framed pictures on the walls	1		.....
8. Suitable dictionary, maps, globes, charts, weights, measures, and other appliances	1		.....
9. Good water supply and covered water cooler, with spigot, and individual drinking cups or sanitary bubbler, and sanitary towels	4		.....
10. Buildings and equipment clean and well kept; floor oiled or sweeping compound used	4		.....

	Maximum Points		Allowed by Co. Supt.
11. United States flag, not less than 4 by 6 feet	1		.....
12. Musical instrument, free textbooks, and playground equipment	4		.....
13. Magazines, one standard weekly magazine of current events and one of general interest	1	(24)	.....
III. Grounds			
1. Two separate sanitary closets or two clean ordinary outside toilets	2		.....
2. Fenced or well-kept playground of at least 1 acre	2		.....
3. Supervised play provided for — (Baseball, basketball, tennis, etc.)	1		.....
4. School garden or trees	1		.....
5. Condition of grounds	1		.....
6. Suitable supply of fuel and shelter for fuel and horses	1	(8)	.....
IV. Community Activities			
1. Thrift education and health work	3		.....
2. School literary society, spelling contest, or other social gathering once a month for at least three months	2		.....
3. Hot lunch, coöperation with other schools, and medical inspection	3		.....
4. Represented in Boys' and Girls' Agricultural and Industrial Clubs at district, county, or state fair, or in community center work	2		.....
5. Represented by other exhibit at district, county, or state fair	2		.....
6. County contests	2		.....

	Maximum Points		Allowed by Co. Supt.
7. Parent-Teacher Association or Coöperating Community Club	2	(16)	.....

V. The School

1. Full, neat, and accurate school register	1		.....
2. One teacher for every 30 or fewer pupils enrolled	1		.....
3. All teachers with first or higher grade certificate	1		.....
4. Teachers retained for second year, or longer	3		.....
5. Daily program posted in room and followed	1		.....
6. State Manual and County Manual on desk	1		.....
7. School visited by all directors	3		.....
8. Homes of all pupils visited by teacher	3		.....
9. Work in nature study, domestic science, manual training, current events, original work by teachers or pupils, attendance averaging 90 per cent or better, punctuality not more than 2 per cent tardiness, and special programs for special days	10	(24)	.....

VI. Other Good Points

1. Teachers' cottage or good boarding place	2		.....
2. Teacher a member of State Retirement Fund	2		.....
3. Work done on adult illiteracy and naturalization	2		.....
4. School board represented at county directors' meeting	2	(8)	.....

Directions for Rating

It will be noted that some of the points above are absolute, while others are left to the discretion of the County Superintendent. Schools scoring between 90 and 100 are rated as A; 75 to 90, B; 60 to 75, C; 45 to 60, D; and below 45, E. Note the rating space at the head of the card. Prefix to the letter the length of the session in months, and place as exponent the number of teachers employed. Thus, 8B2 means a school of B rating with an eight months' term and two teachers.

Worth Considering for 19——19——

Do the best you can with what you have. Get better grounds, building, and equipment as soon as you can. There is not a school in the state that should not look forward to the time when it can be rated as a standard school and also to the time when the school will be the center of community interest, where teachers, pupils, directors, and friends will meet together, become better acquainted, and talk over things that will make the grounds more beautiful, the equipment more useful, the instruction more practical, and the association together more enjoyable and beneficial.

Washington schools are steadily improving. At the close of the coming school year, it is expected that an increased number of schools will score between 90 and 100 points according to Standard Rating Card requirements. It is the intention of the State Department of Education at the close of the school year in 19— to award a plate bearing the word "Standard" to every school that secures the total number of points which are needed to warrant such designation. This rating shall be continued as long as a school shall deserve it, the plate to be placed on the outside of all such buildings.

Watch for every opportunity to do larger things. As teacher, you must be the leader in the community. If there is opportunity for a two-room school instead of a one-, for transportation or for consolidation, the teacher should know it before anyone else and should be the one to pave the way for the sentiment, without which

these good things will never come your way. Know your district and know your people. Remember the direst need of Washington education to-day is for teachers who will do foundation work and that the shortest road to promotion for these same teachers will be to stay and do the constructive work on the foundation they have laid so well. Washington people will pay for what they want. Earn promotion and you will receive it.

B. Evaluation of Instruction[1]

The following analysis was issued by the New York Bureau of Municipal Research, 261 Broadway, New York, to "help teachers discover their own strength and weakness and to help supervisors help teachers where need is greatest."

School..... Teacher..... Date.....

I. Personality of teachers. (Indicate answer by inserting check mark ✓.)

1. Teacher appears to be —

Vigorous.....	Weak.....
Poised.....	Nervous.....
Neat.....	Slovenly.....
At ease.....	Embarrassed.....

2. Voice is —

Pleasing.....	Harsh.....
Clear.....	Indistinct.....
Low.....	High.....

3. In her personal relations with pupils, does she appear to —

Stimulate.....	Suppress.....
Win cordial co-operation.....	Antagonize.....
Be sympathetic..	Harsh.....
Strict.....	Lax.....
Even tempered...	Irritable.....

[1] This checking list on teaching and teacher personality is taken from *City School Leaflet No. 18*, February, 1925, entitled "Samples of Teacher Self-Rating Cards," compiled by Bertha Y. Hebb, and issued by the Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

Reasonable.....	Unreasonable.....
Tolerant.....	Intolerant.....
Dignified.....	Undignified.....
Courteous.....	Rude.....
Encouraging.....	Nagging.....
Firm.....	Weak.....
Tactful.....	Blundering.....
Enthusiastic.....	Diffident.....
Quick to react....	Slow to react.....
Quiet.....	Noisy.....
Systematic.....	Disorderly.....
Resourceful.....	Dependent.....

Illustrations

II. The recitation —

1. Number of pupils in class appearing to be —

Interested.....	Indifferent.....
Energetic.....	Lazy.....
Independent.....	Dependent.....

2. Responses of pupils: Number giving
   - (*a*) Fluent topical recitations
   - (*b*) Word or phrase responses
   - (*c*) Sentence responses
   - (*d*) Incoherent responses
   - (*e*) Failing to answer
3. Number of pupils not reciting..... ; reciting once..... ; twice..... ; three times..... ; more than three times .....
4. Number of pupils in room but not in class..... ; number industrious..... ; indolent..... ; minding their own business..... ; interfering with others.....
5. Number of pupils asking pertinent questions of fact ..... ; relevant thought-provoking questions.....
6. Time lost (check ✓ under *yes* or *no*).

	Yes	No	Number of Minutes
Calling class			
Dismissing class			
Distributing materials			
Indistinct speech of teacher			
Indistinct speech of pupils			
Unnecessary talking of teacher			
Unnecessary talking of pupils			
Failure to have devices ready			
Use of ill-adapted devices			

Illustrations

(Indicate answer by inserting check mark √.)

	Not at All	Slight	Medium	Notable	Evidence and Remarks
Teaching ability as shown by —					
(*a*) Extent to which teacher's questions are —					
1. Thought-provoking					
2. Calling for facts					
3. Suggesting the answer					
4. Answered by *yes* or *no*					
5. Irrelevant					
6. Not definite — vague					
(*b*) Extent to which material of recitation is —					
1. Confined to text					
2. Within pupils' comprehension					
3. Related to children's lives and experiences					
4. Adapted to children's present or future needs					
5. Worth while					
(*c*) Extent to which the teaching —					
1. Is rambling					

	Not at All	Slight	Medium	Notable	Evidence and Remarks
2. Is formal, mechanical .					
3. Stimulates initiative of pupils					
4. Requires independent thinking					
5. Develops pupils' resourcefulness					
6. Requires coöperation of pupils					
7. Is fixed on essentials . .					
8. Requires pupils to organize material					
9. Utilizes children's experiences					
10. Clears up pupils' difficulties					
11. Shows use of material in solution of present or future problems . . .					
(*d*) Extent to which pupils —					
1. Had a clear idea of purposes of lesson					
2. Were self-reliant . . .					
3. Tested their own solutions					
4. Acted and thought on their own account . . .					
5. Coöperated with teacher and classmates					
6. Persisted in getting desired results					
7. Differentiated between essentials and nonessentials					
8. Organized their material					
9. Seemed well grounded in previous work					

	Yes	No	
Was the assignment —			
(*a*) Definite and clear?			
(*b*) Related to present lesson?			
(*c*) Such that the pupils were prepared to attack it intelligently?			
(*d*) Formal — from textbook?			
(*e*) By topics or problems?			
(*f*) Hastily made at dismissal?			
(*g*) Omitted?			

Correction of essential errors —

1. Describe method used.
2. Are nonessential errors too much emphasized?
3. What record is kept of recurring errors likely to retard progress of pupils?

References for Further Study

Phillips, E. D. (District principal, Wilkes-Barre, Pa.) — *A Self-Rating Scale for Teachers;* School Board Journal, September, 1923.

Wagner, Chas. A. (Superintendent of schools, Chester, Pa.) — *What Should Be the Teacher's Part in a Scheme of Teacher Rating;* School Board Journal, March, 1924.

C. Evaluation of Text [1]

Decatur, Illinois (Measures or Tests for Reading Texts)

I. *Character of Contents* —

1. Provision for variety of motive.
2. Provision for organization of ideas.
3. Provision for discovery of relative values.

[1] The reading standard presented in this appendix is taken from *The Textbook*, by A. W. Hall-Quest — The Macmillan Company. The score card for language is printed through courtesy of Houghton Mifflin Company.

4. Provision for initiative by pupils.
5. Gradation in regard to interests and experiences of pupils.
6. Does content afford opportunities for different children to find some relation to their own peculiar interest or experiences?
7. Can the children enter into the atmosphere of the stories?
8. Does the subject matter appeal to the child's love, humor, imagination, activity, reason?
9. Do the lessons furnish a stimulus to further thought?
10. Does the text help in forming a foundation for the appreciation of literature?
11. Does the text carry a sustained interest?
12. Does the text have some material adapted for special days, dramatizations, and varied types of reading?
13. Is there opportunity for varied and natural expression?
14. Are the lessons isolated, grouped, or continuous?
15. Will the text tend to produce eager, independent readers?
16. How many pages are not adapted for use by all the children?

II. *Vocabulary* —

1. Condition in regard to word difficulty, sentence structure, mechanical arrangement on page.
2. Are the lessons of suitable length?
3. Are the words, phrases, and sentences of the first half of the primer easy and natural for the beginners?
4. Are the words used in the text those needed in the child's everyday vocabulary, and in reading supplementary readers?
5. Can new words be mastered largely through the context?
6. Does the vocabulary increase slowly enough?
8. Does the text sufficiently increase the child's vocabulary?
9. Is provision made for motivated reviews?
10. Is repetition provided at ever-increasing intervals?
11. Is there sufficiently frequent repetition of words in different relations to each other to assure recognition?

12. Is there too much repetition so that memory is depended upon rather than word recognition?
13. Is the material so organized that a thorough phonic course may be formed leading to independent reading?
14. Does the text tend to strong word mastery?

III. *Method Helps* —

1. Is there a gradual progression through the series?
2. Is the teacher helped to grow in ability to get intelligent, expressive reading from the classes?
3. What suggestions are made for helping the pupil when he does not know the needed word?
4. Which makes the best provision for drills?
5. Does the subject matter lend itself to good habits of study?
6. Is there enough material for independent seat work?
7. Can the inexperienced teacher get good results from the use of this text?
8. Does the text open opportunities for growth in method to the experienced teacher?
9. Is adequate help given the second- and third-grade teachers?
10. What provision is made for voice training?

IV. *Make-Up of the Book* [1]—

1. Is the book attractive?
2. Will it stand the wear and tear of daily use?
3. Are the illustrations artistic, suggestive, and of educative worth?
4. Are the illustrations well arranged?
5. Are the type and page arrangement well adapted to the particular grade for which the book is intended?
6. Is the book convenient as to size, weight, and flexibility of binding?

[1] It is suggested that the teacher or the young student teacher rate three of the latest texts in each of the following subjects as to mechanical make-up: reading, arithmetic, language, geography. In order to have uniformity let all of the books be for grades three and four.

Score Card for Evaluating Language Books

	Standard
A. *Authorship* — 50 points	
1. Experience of authors	25
2. Laboratory background	25
B. *Recognition of Language Objectives* — 250 points	
1. Utilize children's experience	20
2. Utilize children's interests	20
3. Fluent speaking and writing habitual	30
4. Emphasize oral composition	
a. Sentence sense	20
b. Organization skill	10
c. Enunciation and modulation	10
5. Develop and enrich vocabulary	20
6. Provide written composition practice	
a. Capitalization	10
b. Punctuation	10
c. Paragraphing	20
7. Only functional grammar given	40
8. Detecting and eliminating errors	20
9. Systematic proof reading by pupil	20
C. *Organization of Subject Matter* — 250 points	
1. The chapter organization	
a. Central theme	10
b. Activities related to central theme	10
c. Substance before form	10
d. Chapter composition program	
(1) Free discussion	10
(2) Oral composition	
(*a*) Based on free discussion	5
(*b*) Self-selected topics	10
(*c*) Definite purpose	5
(*d*) Audience reaction	5
(*e*) Form of presentation	5
(*f*) Technique of presentation	5
(*g*) Eradicate common errors	10

	Standard
(3) Written composition	
(*a*) Oral preparation	5
(*b*) Self-selected topics	10
(*c*) Definite purpose	5
(*d*) Effect on readers	5
(*e*) Form and technique	10
(*f*) Special form and technique practice	10
(*g*) Proof reading	10
(*h*) Self-rating	10
2. General Organization	
a. Definite goals	10
b. Progression according to needs	10
c. Progression by topic repetition	
(1) Correct forms	5
(2) Clear enunciation	5
(3) Good modulation	5
(4) Accurate pronunciation	5
(5) Planning of compositions	5
(6) Courtesy in oral work	5
(7) Practice in writing technique	5
(8) Proof reading	5
(9) Training sentence sense	5
(10) Planning written work	5
d. Particular topics emphasized	10
e. Functional grammar in upper grades	10
f. Other subjects correlated	10
D. *Recognition of and Adaptation to Pupils' Needs* — 300 points	
1. Lessons adapted to pupils' ability	15
2. Gradation based on pupils' needs	15
3. Use of children's experiences	15
4. Purposeful composition encouraged	20
5. Individuality cultivated	15
6. Imagination instructed	15
7. Observation and judgment training	10
8. Group activities encouraged	10

	Standard
9. Appeal to wide variety of interests	20
10. Language consciousness	20
11. Class composition standards	25
12. Opportunity for judging, etc.	25
13. Independent improvement provided for	25
14. Self-checking	25
15. Presentation of correct form	20
16. Correct form drills	25
E. Adaptation to Teachers' Needs — 110 points	
1. Aims clearly stated	10
2. Provision for achieving aims	10
3. Correct points of view	
a. Language through use	5
b. Language through other subjects	5
4. Directions complete and definite	5
5. Assignments suggestive and stimulative	5
6. Style not dogmatic	5
7. Proper proportion oral and written work	10
8. Written work related to oral work	10
9. Useless paper grading relieved by:	
a. Oral preparation for written work	5
b. Limited number of written compositions	5
c. Plan for self-criticism by pupil	5
d. Self-rating by pupil	5
e. Anticipating and preventing errors	5
10. Types of language work	5
11. Vocabulary enrichment	10
12. Suggestions for using local interests	5
F. Mechanical Make-up — 40 points	
1. Durability and suitability	5
2. General attractiveness	10
3. Pictures and illustrations	10
4. Readableness of page	5
5. Index and table of contents	5
6. Expense	5

D. Morality Code for Children

for elementary schools

The Elementary Morality of Civilization

Boys and girls who are good Americans try to become strong and useful, worthy of their nation, that our country may become ever greater and better. Therefore, they obey the laws of right living which the best Americans have always obeyed.

I

the law of self-control

Good Americans Control Themselves

Those who best control themselves can best serve their country.

1. I will control my tongue, and will not allow it to speak mean, vulgar, or profane words. I will think before I speak. I will tell the truth and nothing but the truth.
2. I will control my temper, and will not get angry when people or things displease me. Even when indignant against wrong and contradicting falsehood, I will keep my self-control.
3. I will control my thoughts, and will not allow a foolish wish to spoil a wise purpose.
4. I will control my actions. I will be careful and thrifty, and insist on doing right.
5. I will not ridicule nor defile the character of another; I will keep my self-respect, and help others to keep theirs.

II

the law of good health

Good Americans Try to Gain and Keep Good Health

The welfare of our country depends upon those who are physically fit for their daily work. Therefore:

1. I will try to take such food, sleep, and exercise as will keep me always in good health.
2. I will keep my clothes, my body, and my mind clean.
3. I will avoid those habits which would harm me, and will make and never break those habits which will help me.
4. I will protect the health of others, and guard their safety as well as my own.
5. I will grow strong and skillful.

III

THE LAW OF KINDNESS

Good Americans are Kind

In America those who are different must live in the same communities. We are of many different sorts, but we are one great people. Every unkindness hurts the common life, every kindness helps. Therefore:

1. I will be kind in all my thoughts. I will bear no spites or grudges. I will never despise anybody.
2. I will be kind in all my speech. I will never gossip nor will I speak unkindly of anyone. Words may wound or heal.
3. I will be kind in all acts. I will not selfishly insist on having my own way. I will be polite: rude people are not good Americans. I will not make unnecessary trouble for those who work for me, nor forget to be grateful. I will be careful of other people's things. I will do my best to prevent cruelty, and will give help to those who are in need.

IV

THE LAW OF SPORTSMANSHIP

Good Americans Play Fair

Strong play increases and trains one's strength and courage. Sportsmanship helps one to be a gentleman — or a lady. Therefore:

1. I will not cheat; I will keep the rules, but I will play the game hard, for the fun of the game, to win by strength and skill. If I should not play fair, the loser would lose the fun of the game, the winner would lose self-respect, and the game itself would become a mean and often cruel business.

2. I will treat my opponents with courtesy, and trust them if they deserve it. I will be friendly.

3. If I play in a group game, I will play, not for my own glory, but for the success of my team.

4. I will be a good loser or a generous winner.

5. And in my work as well as in my play, I will be sportsmanlike — generous, fair, honorable.

V

THE LAW OF SELF-RELIANCE

Good Americans are Self-Reliant

Self-conceit is silly, but self-reliance is necessary to boys and girls who would be strong and useful.

1. I will gladly listen to the advice of older and wiser people; I will reverence the wishes of those who love and care for me, and who know life and me better than I. I will develop independence and wisdom to choose for myself, act for myself, according to what seems right and fair and wise.

2. I will not be afraid of being laughed at when I am right. I will not be afraid of doing right when the crowd does wrong.

3. When in danger, trouble, or pain, I will be brave. A coward does not make a good American.

VI

THE LAW OF DUTY

Good Americans Do Their Duty

The shirker and the willing idler live upon others, and burden fellow citizens with work unfairly. They do not do their share for their country's good.

I will try to find out what my duty is, what I ought to do as a good American, and my duty I will do, whether it is easy or hard. What it is my duty to do I can do.

VII

THE LAW OF RELIABILITY

Good Americans are Reliable

Our country grows great and good as her citizens are able more fully to trust each other. Therefore:

1. I will be honest in every act, and very careful with money. I will not cheat nor pretend nor sneak.
2. I will not do wrong in the hope of not being found out. I cannot hide the truth from myself. Nor will I injure the property of others.
3. I will not take without permission what does not belong to me. A thief is a menace to me and others.
4. I will do promptly what I have promised to do. If I have made a foolish promise, I will at once confess my mistake, and I will try to make good any harm which my mistake may have caused. I will so speak and act that people will find it easier to trust each other.

VIII

THE LAW OF TRUTH

Good Americans are True

1. I will be slow to believe suspicions lest I do injustice; I will avoid hasty opinions lest I be mistaken as to facts.
2. I will stand by the truth regardless of my likes and dislikes, and scorn the temptation to lie for myself or friends; nor will I keep the truth from those who have a right to it.
3. I will hunt for proof, and be accurate as to what I see and hear; I will learn to think, that I may discover new truth.

IX

THE LAW OF GOOD WORKMANSHIP

Good Americans Try to Do the Right Thing in the Right Way

The welfare of our country depends upon those who have learned to do in the right way the work that makes civilization possible. Therefore:

1. I will get the best possible education, and learn all that I can as a preparation for the time when I am grown up and at my life work. I will invent and make things better if I can.

2. I will take real interest in work, and will not be satisfied to do slipshod, lazy, and merely passable work. I will form the habit of good work and keep alert; mistakes and blunders cause hardships, sometimes disaster, and spoil success.

3. I will make the right thing in the right way to give it value and beauty, even when no one else sees or praises me. But when I have done my best, I will not envy those who have done better, or have received larger reward. Envy spoils the work and the worker.

X

THE LAW OF TEAM WORK

Good Americans Work in Friendly Coöperation with Fellow Workers

One alone could not build a city or a great railroad. One alone would find it hard to build a bridge. That I may have bread, people have sowed and reaped, people have made plows and threshers, have built mills and mined coal, made stoves and kept stores. As we learn better how to work together, the welfare of our country is advanced.

1. In whatever work I do with others, I will do my part and encourage others to do their part, promptly, quickly.

2. I will help to keep in order the things which we use in our work. When things are out of place, they are often in the way, and sometimes they are hard to find.

3. In all my work with others, I will be cheerful. Cheerlessness depresses all the workers and injures all the work.

4. When I have received money for my work, I will be neither a miser nor a spendthrift. I will save or spend as one of the friendly workers of America.

XI

THE LAW OF LOYALTY

Good Americans are Loyal

If our America is to become ever greater and better, her citizens must be loyal, devotedly faithful, in every relation of life; full of courage and regardful of their honor.

1. I will be loyal to my family. In loyalty I will gladly obey my parents or those who are in their place, and show them gratitude. I will do my best to help each member of my family to strength and usefulness.

2. I will be loyal to my school. In loyalty I will obey and help other pupils to obey those rules which further the good of all.

3. I will be loyal to my town, my state, my country. In loyalty I will respect and help others to respect their laws and their courts of justice.

4. I will be loyal to humanity and civilization. In loyalty I will do my best to help the friendly relations of our country with every other country, and to give to everyone in every land the best possible chance. I will seek truth and wisdom; I will work, and achieve, if I can, some good for the civilization into which I have been born.

If I try simply to be loyal to my family, I may be disloyal to my school. If I try simply to be loyal to my school, I may be disloyal to my town, my state, and my country. If I try simply

to be loyal to my town, state, and country, I may be disloyal to humanity. I will try above all things else to be loyal to humanity; then I shall surely be loyal to my country, my state, and my town, to my school and to my family. And this loyalty to humanity will keep me faithful to civilization.

Those who obey the law of loyalty obey all of the other ten laws of the Good American.

HISTORICAL NOTE

The Children's Morality Code by Wm. J. Hutchins was awarded the Donor's prize of $5,000 in the National Morality Codes Competition, 1916, for the best Children's Code of Morals, the judges being Professor George Trumbull Ladd, of Yale University; Justice Mahlon Pitney of the Supreme Court of the United States; and President Mrs. Phillip North Moore, of the National Council of Women. All the states participated, and the competition was under the auspices of the Character Education Institution.

Verification and Revision

The Children's Morality Code has been revised and verified so as to express intelligent public opinion as to the moral ideas which ought to be inculcated in the minds and hearts of children.

Seven Ways of Revision and Verification

1. Comparison with literature on moral education of children.
2. Popular vote by members of state character-education committees.
3. Comparison with the 51 other codes submitted in the $5,000 competition, 1916.
4. Criticism by representatives of the human sciences.
5. Checked against a list of 650 childhood morality acts.
6. Checked against a list of the 92 desirable human characteristics.
7. Approved by French educationists through their Ministry of Education.

In this revised and verified form, it can be trusted as a guide for teachers and parents in their work of teaching children what is right in daily conduct.

CHARACTER EDUCATION INSTITUTION,
Chevy Chase, Washington, D. C.

Additional copies may be obtained from National Capital Press, Washington, D. C. Prices: 25 copies, $1.00; 50 copies, $1.50; 100 at $2.50; 500 at $5.00; 1,000 at $7.50. Cash with order.

E. BOOKS FOR BOYS AND GIRLS [1]

I. *First Grade*

CALDECOTT, RALPH —*Picture Books;* F. Warne
Sing a Song of Six Pence
Hey Diddle Diddle

BROOKE, L. L. — *Johnny Crow's Garden;* F. Warne

POTTER, BEATRIX — *The Tale of Peter Rabbit;* F. Warne
(to be read by the teacher)

CRANE, WALTER — *Picture Books;* J. Lane
The Little Pig, His Picture Book
Goody Two Shoes Picture Book

LE MAIR, H. W. — *Old Nursery Rhymes;* D. McKay
Mother's Little Rhyme Book
Auntie's Little Rhyme Book
Granny's Little Rhyme Book
Nursey's Little Rhyme Book

LE FÈVRE, FÉLICITÉ — *The Cock, the Mouse, and the Little Red Hen;* Macrae-Smith
(to be read by the teacher)

Other books recommended are:

HEADLAND, I. T. — *Chinese Mother Goose Rhymes;* Revell

HOWARD, F. W. — *Banbury Cross Stories;* Merrill

[1] The above list of books is printed in the Montana State Manual for Rural Schools and is used here by permission of the State Department of Public Instruction, Helena, Montana.

ROBINSON, LOUISE — *Behind the Glass Windows;* Little
BLAISDELL, M. F. — *Pretty Polly Flinders;* Little
HOLBROOK, FLORENCE — *The Hiawatha Primer;* Houghton

II. *Second Grade*

BANNERMANN, HELEN — *The Story of Little Black Sambo;* Stokes
SMITH, GERTRUDE — *Arabello and Araminto;* Thompson
BURNETT, F. H. — *The Racketty Packetty House;* Century
(to be read by the teacher)
PERKINS, L. F. — *Dutch Twins;* Houghton
(to be read by the teacher)
Japanese Twins; Houghton
(to be read by the teacher)
Eskimo Twins; Houghton
(to be read by the teacher)
WILEY, BELLE — *Lodrix, the Little Lake Dweller;* Appleton
Lolami, the Little Cliff Dweller; Silver
Mewanee, the Little Indian Boy; Silver
STEVENSON, R. L. — *Child's Garden of Verses;* Scribner
CRAIK, G. M. — *Bow Wow and Mew Mew;* Beckley-Cardy
SMITH, M. E. E. — *Eskimo Stories;* Rand
BASS, FLORENCE — *Nature Stories for Young Readers — Plant Life;* Heath
Nature Stories for Young Readers — Animal Life; Heath
FOX, F. C. — *The Indian Primer;* American
BROOKS, D. — *Stories of the Red Children;* Ed. Pub. Co.

III. *Third Grade*

BROWN, A. F. — *The Lonesomest Doll;* Houghton
SPYRI, JOHANNA — *Moni, the Goat Boy;* Ginn
HALL, JENNIE — *Viking Tales;* Rand
CARROLL, LEWIS — *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland;* Macmillan
DUTTON, M. B. — *The Tortoise and the Geese;* Ditson

THORNE-THOMSEN, GUDRUN — *East o' the Sun and West o' the Moon;* Row

ZITKALA-SA. — *Old Indian Legends Retold;* Ginn

JACKSON, H. M. H. — *Letters from a Cat;* Little

VERHOEFF, CAROLYN — *All About Johnny Jones;* Bradley

CRAIK, MRS. DINAH MULOCK — *Adventures of a Brownie;* Altemus

BURGESS, T. W. — *The Burgess Animal Book for Children;* Little

GRIFFITH, ELEANOR G. — *Cho Cho and the Health Fairy;* Macmillan

PERKINS, L. F. — *Belgian Twins;* Houghton

HOLBROOK, FLORENCE — *Cave, Mound, and Lake Dwellers;* Heath

RICHARDS, L. E. — *The Golden Windows, a Book of Fables for Young and Old;* Little

ANDERSON, R. G. — *Seven O'clock Stories;* Putnam

POTTER, BEATRIX — *Tale of Benjamin Bunny;* F. Warne

Tale of Peter Rabbit; F. Warne

Tale of Jeremy Fisher; F. Warne

IV. *Fourth Grade*

CARROLL, LEWIS — *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland;* Macmillan

CARPENTER, F. G. — *Around the World with Children;* American

HOLBROOK, FLORENCE — *Book of Nature Myths;* Houghton

FARMER, F. V. — *Boy and Girl Heroes;* Macmillan

BURGESS, T. W. — *The Burgess Bird Book for Children;* Little

PAGE, T. N. — *Captured Santa Claus;* Scribner

DICKINSON, A. D. — *Children's Book of Thanksgiving Stories;* Doubleday

HOWELLS, W. D. — *Christmas Every Day;* Harper

BALDWIN, JAMES — *Old Greek Stories;* American

WADE, M. H. — *Coming of the White Men;* Wilde

Morley, M. W. — *Donkey John of the Toy Valley;* McClurg

Thorne-Thomsen, Gudrun — *East o' the Sun and West o' the Moon;* Row

Stone, G. L., and Fickett, M. G. — *Everyday Life in the Colonies;* Heath

Baldwin, James — *Fifty Famous People, a Book of Short Stories;* American

Beston, H. B. — *Firelight Fairy Book;* Little

Pyle, H. — *Garden behind the Moon;* Scribner

McDonald, E. B., and Dalrymple, Julia — *Betty in Canada;* Little

Gerda in Sweden; Little

(and others from that series)

Knowlton, P. A. — *Introduction to World Geography;* Macmillan

Scandlin, Christiana — *Hans, the Eskimo;* Silver

Perkins, L. F. — *Irish Twins;* Houghton

(and others from that series)

Kipling, Rudyard — *Just So Stories for Little Children;* Doubleday

Craik, Mrs. Dinah Mulock — *Little Lame Prince;* Heath

Schwartz, Julia A. — *Little Star Gazers;* Stokes

Otis, James — *Mary of Plymouth;* American

White, E. O. A. — *Little Girl of Long Ago;* Houghton

Nixon-Roulet, M. F. — *Our Little Australian Cousin;* Page

(and others from that series)

Barrie, J. M. — *Peter Pan;* Silver

Richards, L. E. — *The Pig Brother;* Little

Andrews, Jane — *The Seven Little Sisters Who Live on the Round Ball that Floats in the Air;* Ginn

Lucia, Rose — *Stories of American Discoveries for Little Americans;* American

V. *Fifth Grade*

Grenfell, W. T. — *Adrift on an Ice-pan;* Houghton

COLUM, P. — *Children's Homer: the Adventures of Odysseus and the Tale of Troy;* Macmillan

TAPPAN, E. M. — *American Hero Stories;* Houghton

LEFFERTS, WALTER — *American Leaders, Books I and II;* Lippincott

OLCOTT, F. J. — *Arabian Nights' Entertainments;* Holt

PAINE, A. B. — *Arkansaw Bear;* Altemus

SAUNDERS, MARSHALL — *Beautiful Joe;* Am. Baptist Pub. Socy.

SEWELL, ANNA — *Black Beauty;* Grosset

LANG, ANDREW — *Blue Fairy Book;* Burt

KIPLING, RUDYARD — *Captains Courageous;* Doubleday

DICKINSON, A. D., AND DICKINSON, H. W. — *Children's Book of Patriotic Stories;* Doubleday

HANCOCK, M. S. — *Children of History;* Little
(two vols. — Early Times; Later Times)

MOLESWORTH, MRS. MARY L. S. — *Christmas Tree Land;* Macmillan

STOCKING, J. T. — *City That Never Was Reached and Other Stories for Children;* Pilgrim Press

CHAMBERLAIN, J. F., AND CHAMBERLAIN, A. H. — *Continents and Their People;* Macmillan

North America	*Asia*
South America	*Africa*
Europe	*Oceania*

DE LA RAMÉE, LOUISE — *A Dog of Flanders;* Macmillan

HAAREN, J. H., AND POLAND, A. B. — *Famous Men of Modern Times;* American

HYDE, L. S. — *Favorite Greek Myths;* Heath

PERKINS, L. F. — *French Twins;* Houghton
(and others from that series)

SIDNEY, MARGARET — *Five Little Peppers and How They Grew;* Lothrop

RIIS, J. A. — *Hero Tales of the Far North;* Macmillan

PARKMAN, M. R. — *Heroes of To-day;* Century

Bryant, S. C. — *I Am an American;* Houghton
Eastman, Mrs. Chas. A. — *Indian Legends Retold;* Little
Wesselhoeft, Mrs. Elizabeth F. — *Laddie, the Master of the House;* Little
Otis, James — *The Life Savers; a Story of the Life-Saving Service;* Dutton
Aanrud, Hans — *Lisbeth Longfrock;* Ginn
Burnett, F. H. — *Little Lord Fauntleroy;* Scribner
Curtis, A. T. — *A Little Maid of Old Philadelphia;* Penn
White, S. E. — *The Magic Forest, a Modern Fairy Story;* Macmillan
Butler, E. C. — *Our Mexican Cousin;* Page
(and others from that series)
Tappan, E. M. — *Robin Hood, His Book;* Little
Eastman, C. A., and Eastman, E. G. — *Smoky Day's Wigwam Evenings, Indian Stories Retold;* Little
Johnson, Gaylord — *The Star People, with Drawings on Sand and Blackboard;* Macmillan
Carter, M. H. — *Stories of Brave Dogs;* Century
Yard, R. S. — *Top of the Continent, the Story of a Cheerful Journey through Our National Parks;* Scribner
Brooks, E. S. — *True Story of Benjamin Franklin;* Lothrop
True Story of Lincoln; Lothrop
Wade, Mrs. Mary H. — *Twin Travelers in South America;* Stokes
Seton, E. T. — *Wild Animals I Have Known;* Scribner
Hawthorne, Nathaniel — *Wonder Book for Boys and Girls;* Houghton

VI. *Sixth Grade*

Starr, Frederick — *American Indians;* Heath
Mowry, W. A., and Mowry, A. M. — *American Inventions and Inventors;* Silver
Page, T. N. — *Among the Camps, or Young People's Stories of the War;* Scribner

MONTGOMERY, L. M. — *Anne of Green Gables;* Grosset
LANE, E. W. — *Arabian Nights, Entertainments;* Holt
NORRIS, KATHLEEN — *The Barberry Bush;* Doubleday
WRIGHT, W. H. — *Ben, the Black Bear;* Scribner
SETON, E. T. — *Biography of a Grizzly;* Century
DOUBLEDAY, N. B. — *Bird Neighbors;* Doubleday
CHANDLER, KATHERINE — *The Bird Woman of the Lewis and Clark Expedition;* Silver
WIGGIN, K. D. — *The Bird's Christmas Carol;* Houghton
BURROUGHS, JOHN — *Birds and Bees, Sharp Eyes and Other Papers;* Houghton
HAWKES, CLARENCE — *Black Bruin, the Biography of a Bear;* Macrae-Smith
BURTON, C. P. — *The Bob's Cave Boys;* Holt
MALORY, T. — *Book of King Arthur;* Stokes
INGERSOLL, ERNEST — *The Book of the Ocean;* Century
WILLARD, J. H. — *Boy General;* Altemus
STODDARD, W. O. — *The Boy Lincoln;* Appleton
BAKER, R. S. — *Boy's Second Book of Invention;* Doubleday
COFFIN, C. C. — *The Boys of '76;* Harper
ROLT-WHEELER, FRANCIS — *The Boy with the U. S. Life Savers;* Lothrop
BURTON, C. P. — *Camp Bob's Hill;* Holt
MUNROE, KIRK — *Campmates; a Story of the Plains;* Harper
RICHARDS, L. E. — *Captain January;* Dana Estes
PUTNAM, L. M. — *Children's Life of Lincoln;* McClurg
GOULD, F. J. — *The Children's Plutarch, Tales of the Greeks;* Harper
ABBOTT, J. S. C. — *Kit Carson, the Pioneer of the Far West;* Dodd
MCDONALD, E. B., AND DALRYMPLE, JULIA — *Colette in France;* Little
STODDARD, W. O. — *Dab Kinzer, a Story of a Growing Boy;* Scribner

Snedden, G. S. — *Docas, the Indian Boy of Santa Clara;* Heath

Perry, F. M. — *Four American Inventors;* American

Beebe, M. B. — *Four American Naval Heroes;* American

Burton, A. H. — *Four American Patriots;* American

Perry, F. M., and Beebe, Katherine — *Four American Pioneers;* American

Jewett, J. H. — *Friends of the Hunted;* Dodge

Francillon, R. E. — *Gods and Heroes, or, the Kingdom of Jupiter;* Ginn

Wright, W. H. — *The Grizzly Bear;* Scribner

Adams, J. H. — *Harper's Electricity Book for Boys;* Harper

Barnes, James — *The Hero of Erie;* Appleton

Eggleston, Edward — *The Hoosier School Boy;* Scribner

Alcott, Louisa M. — *Jo's Boys;* Little

Baylor, F. C. — *Juan and Juanita;* Houghton

Wesselhoeft, Mrs. Elizabeth F. — *Laddie, the Master of the House;* Little

Burnett, Frances H. — *The Lost Prince;* Century

Haines, A. C. — *The Luck of the Dudley Grahams;* Holt

Johnson, R. — *Phaeton Rogers;* Scribner

Harris, J. C. — *Story of Aaron, the Son of Ben Ali;* Houghton

Lamb, Charles — *Tales from Shakespeare;* Macmillan

Hawthorne, Nathaniel — *Tanglewood Tales;* Houghton

Harris, J. C. — *Uncle Remus, His Songs and His Sayings;* Appleton

Hawthorne, Nathaniel — *Wonder Book for Boys and Girls;* Houghton

Pyle, Katharine — *Wonder Tales Retold;* Little

VII. *Seventh and Eighth Grades*

Hughes, Thomas — *Tom Brown's School Days, by An Old Boy;* Ginn

RICE, A. H. — *Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch;* Century
STOWE, H. B. — *Uncle Tom's Cabin;* Houghton
WIGGIN, K. D. — *Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm;* Grosset
The Story of Patsy; Houghton
NICOLAY, HELEN — *The Boys' Life of Abraham Lincoln;* Century
KELLER, HELEN — *Story of My Life;* Houghton
WASHINGTON, BOOKER T. — *Up from Slavery, an Autobiography;* Houghton
PARKMAN, FRANCIS — *The Oregon Trail, Sketches of Prairie and Rocky Mountain Life;* Little
STEVENSON, R. L. — *Treasure Island;* Macmillan
CLEMENS, S. L. — *The Prince and the Pauper;* Harper
The Adventures of Tom Sawyer; Harper
COOPER, J. F. — *The Last of the Mohicans;* Burt
EGGLESTON, EDWARD — *The Hoosier School Boy;* Scribner
ALCOTT, L. M. — *An Old-Fashioned Girl;* Little
BALDWIN, JAMES — *The Story of Roland;* Scribner
DANA, R. H. — *Two Years Before the Mast;* Macmillan
DU CHAILLU, PAUL. — *The Land of the Long Night;* Scribner
ALCOTT, L. M. — *Little Women;* Little
DE FOE, DANIEL — *The Life and Adventures of Robinson Crusoe;* Rand
VERNE, JULES — *Twenty Thousand Leagues under the Sea;* Scribner
LONDON, JACK — *Call of the Wild;* Grosset
HALE, E. E. — *The Man without a Country;* Little
KIPLING, RUDYARD — *Captains Courageous;* Doubleday
ALDRICH, T. B. — *The Story of a Bad Boy;* Houghton
DODGE, M. M. — *Hans Brinker; or The Silver Skates;* Scribner
SETON, E. T. — *Trail of the Sandhill Stag;* Scribner
Two Little Savages; Grossett
PORTER, G. S. — *Freckles;* Grosset

Moffet, Cleveland — *Careers of Danger and Daring;* Century
Bond, A. R. — *With the Men Who Do Things;* Munn
Brooks, Noah — *The Boy Emigrants;* Scribner

F. Educational Commercial Materials

It was the original intent of the writer to print here a rather long list of educational exhibits, giving names and addresses of companies, with prices. For good reasons this idea was abandoned. Instead, the interested teacher is strongly advised to send fifty cents to Miss Mary Josephine Booth, Charleston, Illinois, for her useful hundred-page booklet entitled *Material on Geography.* Miss Booth's address is 1536 Fourth Street. The book has been recently revised. On pages 78 to 88 will be found just the information teachers are seeking. The following raw or finished products are listed: Aluminum, asbestos, baking powder, bamboo, buttons, cement, cereals, citrus fruits, cocoa and chocolate, coffee, cork, cotton, cotton manufacture, evaporated milk, flag, flour, fur, glass manufacture, glue, grain, hosiery, ink, linen, linoleum, malted milk, marble, evaporated milk, minerals, mohair, ores, paper, pencils, pens, pins, plate glass, rice, rubber, rugs, salt, sharpening stones, shears, silk, silverware, slate, soap, spices, sugar cane, tea, telephone, thimbles, thread, wood, woolen and worsted manufactures.

Teachers should read the following, and then use good judgment in requesting exhibits, some of which are free and some costing several dollars. Don't expect to get much for nothing. Miss Booth says at the top of page 78: "This list has been compiled from answers to letters sent out to over 2500 manufacturers and business concerns. Some of the exhibits cost too much for small schools but are included to make the list useful to large schools."

Mr. Charles R. Toothaker, curator of the Commercial Museum, Philadelphia, suggests the following: "Teachers will find that many business firms are sometimes willing to supply material for educational use. The firms most willing to do this are generally

those that spend most money on advertising. If you want any particular industry illustrated by specimens and find the firm which advertises largely, you have a very fair chance of getting what you want by writing to them. *In such a case everything depends on the kind of a letter you write.* A great deal can be done through the parents of children in your own class; the grocer, the druggist, or the dry goods dealer has much influence with the wholesale dealer from whom he buys."

Miss Booth again writes as follows, the italics being those of the present writer: "*Teachers or principals only should write for these exhibits and should not allow the pupils to write.* One manufacturer writes, 'We have found these privileges have been abused by pupils writing in for them, in several instances a dozen or more coming from the same school, and we think that you will agree with us that this is hardly fair to the manufacturers.'"

On page 8 of Miss Booth's useful book we find the following suggestions pertaining to:

Misuse of Free Material

Most firms are glad to supply material free to teachers for use in their schools, but object to receiving 30 to 40 requests from the same town from small children who are making collections of pictures, etc. Teachers should not have a whole room write for the same pamphlets as this practice makes it difficult for those really needing the pamphlets to get them. The following is from a letter recently received from the west: "We are bombarded with letters from school children all over the United States throughout the year and we would like very much to get the message over to teachers through your book that we will supply teachers with a complete set of booklets about this vicinity but not individual children." This extract is from a letter from the east: "I feel sure that teachers are stimulating the children to write to business firms in the same way they write to us and I feel sure that this whole matter is unwise. With great regret, I am forced to throw many of these letters in the wastebasket, and I am of the opinion that the collection of such material should never be done by the

children." This extract comes from the preface of a pamphlet printed in the southwest: "Students should not be permitted to write for any of this material, even though it may be good pedagogy to encourage them to do so."

G. Teacher's Contract

IT IS HEREBY AGREED: By and between School District No. of the Town of , County of , State of , and , a legally qualified teacher, that said teacher is to teach, govern and conduct the School of said District to the best of ability; keep a register of daily attendance and studies of each pupil belonging to the school, and such other records as the District Board may require; make such reports as are required by law, and endeavor to preserve, in good condition and order, the schoolhouse, grounds, furniture, apparatus, and such other district property as may come under the immediate supervision of said teacher, for a term of school months, commencing on the day of , 19 , for the sum of Dollars per school month, to be paid at the end of each month, it being understood and agreed that days' teaching constitutes a month, and that on not more than five Saturdays shall there be any school.

And the said School District hereby agrees to keep the schoolhouse in repair; to provide the necessary fuel and school register .....
.....
.....
..... and for the services of said teacher as prescribed above, well and duly performed, to pay said teacher the sum of Dollars per school month at the end of each month, during a term of months, commencing on the day of 19 .

PROVIDED, That in case such teacher shall be legally dismissed from school, or shall have certificate legally annulled, by expiration or otherwise, then said teacher shall not be

entitled to compensation from and after such dismissal or annulment.

PROVIDED FURTHER, That the wages of said teacher for the last month of the school term shall not be paid unless said teacher shall have made the report for the school year, as required by law.

IT IS FURTHER Mutually understood and agreed that in the event of the destruction, by fire or other cause, beyond the control of the parties hereto, of the school building in which the teacher shall be employed; or, in the event of the permanent inability of the teacher to perform the services herein specified, this contract shall be deemed terminated as of that day, and the teacher shall be paid and receive in full settlement of all claims hereunder, the proportionate part of the contract price then earned; provided that nothing herein contained shall be construed to require payment to be made for temporary loss of time by the teacher, except holidays provided by statute, or by the rules or orders of the District Board.

This contract is subject to the requirements of the state retirement law.

Date of birth of said teacher is

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, We have hereunto subscribed our names this day of , A.D. 19 .

....., Director.
....., Treasurer.
....., Clerk.
....., Teacher.

CERTIFICATION OF TEACHER'S LEGAL QUALIFICATIONS

Grade..... No.....

It is Hereby Certified, That has passed a satisfactory examination upon all points required by law for a grade certificate, and is licensed to teach in County for years from the date hereof unless this certificate is sooner annulled.

Signed, ..., *County Superintendent.*

One copy of this contract should be made out and given to the teacher. No board should permit a teacher to commence school until a written contract is properly signed by both parties.

H. Publishing and School-Supply Companies

Abingdon Press; 150 Fifth Avenue, New York.
Abbott Educational Company; 208 S. Wabash Avenue, Chicago (Seat work and supplies)
Adams: R. G. Adams and Company; 15th Avenue and High Street, Columbus, O.
Allyn and Bacon; 11 East 36th Street, New York (Textbooks)
Altemus: Henry Altemus Publishing Company; 1326 Vine Street, Philadelphia (Children's books)
American Baptist Publication Society; 1701 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia
American Book Company; 88 Lexington Avenue, New York (Textbooks, teachers' and children's books)
American Child Health Ass'n; 370 Seventh Avenue, New York (Health literature and information)
American Economics Association; Evanston, Ill.
American Education Press, Inc.; 40 S. Third Street, Columbus, O. (News magazines)
American Library Association; 86 E. Randolph Street, Chicago (Library information)
American Medical Association; 535 N. Dearborn Street, Chicago (Hygeia Magazine)
American Photographic Publishing Company; 428 Newbury Street, Boston
American Seating Company; 14 E. Jackson Blvd., Chicago (Desks)
American Sunday School Union (Union Press); 1816 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia
American Sports Publishing Company; 45 Rose Street, New York
American Technical Society; Drexel Avenue and 58th Street, Chicago

American Tree Association; 1214 16th Street, Washington, D. C.
American Viewpoint Society; 13 Astor Place, New York
Andover Press; Andover, Mass.
Appleton: D. Appleton and Company; 29–35 West 32nd Street, New York (Textbooks and children's books)
Arnold Company, Inc.; Arnold, Maryland
Arrow Book Company; 347 Fifth Avenue, New York
Association Press (National Council Y. M. C. A.); 347 Madison Avenue, New York (Health, sports, games, thrift, etc.)
Atlantic Monthly Press, Inc.; 8 Arlington Street, Boston
Augsburg Publishing House; 425–429 South 4th Street, Minneapolis
Badger: R. G. Badger (The Gorham Press); 100 Charles Street, Boston
Baker and Taylor Company; 55 Fifth Avenue, New York (General publishers)
Baker: Walter H. Baker Company; 41 Winter Street, Boston
Bardeen School Supplies, Inc.; 315 E. Washington Street, Syracuse, N. Y.
Barnes: A. S. Barnes and Company; 67 West 44th Street, New York
Bares and Company; 21–39 Division Street, Newark, N. J.
Beckley-Cardy Company; 17 East 23rd Street, Chicago (Seat work and other supplies)
Benziger Brothers; 36–38 Barclay Street, New York
Birchard: C. C. Birchard and Company; 221 Columbus Avenue, Boston (Song books)
Blakiston: P. Blakiston's Son and Co., 1012 Walnut Street, Philadelphia
Bobbs-Merrill Company; 724 N. Meridian Street, Indianapolis
Boni: Albert and Charles Boni; 66 Fifth Avenue, New York
Boni and Liveright; 61 West 48th Street, New York
Bowker: R. R. Bowker Company, 62 West 45th Street, New York
Bradley: Milton Bradley Company; 49 Willow Street, Springfield, Mass. (Seat work and kindergarten supplies)

Bragdon, Lord and Nagle Company; 334 Fourth Avenue, New York

Brentano's; 1–11 West 47th Street, New York (Book jobbers and publishers)

Brown, Robertson Company; 415 Madison Avenue, New York

Bruce Publishing Company; 129 E. Michigan Street, Milwaukee

Bureau of Inventive Service; Rochester, N. Y.

Burt: A. L. Burt Company, Inc.; 114–120 East 23rd Street, New York (Juvenile literature)

Cable Company; 1216 Cable Building, Chicago (Song books)

California Academy of Science; Golden Gate Park, San Francisco

Casper, Kreuger, Dory Company; 454 East Water Street, Milwaukee

Century Company; 353 Fourth Avenue, New York

Charles: Thomas Charles Company; 2249 Calumet Avenue, Chicago (Seatwork, kindergarten supplies, etc.)

Chicago Art Education Company; 218 S. Wabash Avenue, Chicago (Pictures)

Chicago Daily News Company; 15 N. Wells Street, Chicago (Daily News Almanac)

Child Study Association of America; 509 West 121st Street, New York

Church: John Church Company; 4th and Elm Streets, Cincinnati (Music)

Churchill-Grindell Company; Platteville, Wis. (Song books)

Christian Alliance Publishing Company; 260 West 44th Street, New York

Classroom Teacher, Inc.; 104 S. Michigan Avenue, Chicago (Twelve volumes for teachers)

Collier: P. F. Collier and Son; 250 Park Avenue, New York

Colonial Art Company; Oklahoma City, Okla. (Pictures)

Columbia Phonograph Company, Inc.; 1819 Broadway, New York

Columbia Publishing Company; Washington, D. C.

Compton: F. E. Compton and Company; 1000 N. Dearborn Street, Chicago (Pictured cyclopedia)

Condé Nast Publications, Inc.; Greenwich, Conn.
Constructive Seat Work Service; Princeton, Ill. (Seat work)
Cosmopolitan Book Corp.; 959 Eighth Avenue, New York
Cram: The George F. Cram Company; Indianapolis (Maps and atlases)
Crofts: F. S. Crofts and Company; 66 Fifth Avenue, New York
Crowell: T. Y. Crowell Company; 393 Fourth Avenue, New York
Cupples and Leon Company; 443–470 Fourth Avenue, New York
Current Events; Capital Square East, Columbus, O. (News magazine)
Curtis Publishing Company; Independence Square, Philadelphia
Curtis and Welch; San Francisco
Dana, Estes and Company; Estes Press, Summer Street, Boston (Juvenile literature)
Davis Press, Inc.; 44 Portland Street, Worcester, Mass.
DeNeane Brothers; Washington, D. C.
Denison: T. S. Denison and Company; 623 S. Wabash Avenue, Chicago
Dennison Manufacturing Company; Framingham, Mass. (Seat work, decorative material, library supplies, etc.)
Denoyer-Geppert Company; 5235–5257 Ravenswood Avenue, Chicago (Maps)
Ditson: Oliver Ditson Company; 179 Tremont Street, Boston
Dodd, Mead and Company, Inc.; 443 Fourth Avenue, New York (International Encyclopedia, etc.)
Domestic Engineering Company; 1900 Prairie Avenue, Chicago
Donohue: M. A. Donohue and Company; 701–733 S. Dearborn Street, Chicago
Doubleday, Doran and Company, Inc.; Garden City, N. Y.
Drake: Frederick J. Drake and Company; 179 N. Michigan Avenue, Chicago
Dramatic Publishing Company; 1542 S. Dearborn Street, Chicago
Draper: Luther O. Draper Shade Company; Spiceland, Ind.
Duffield and Company; 200 Madison Avenue, New York
Dutton: E. P. Dutton and Company, 681 Fifth Avenue, New York

Eau Claire Book and Stationery Company; Eau Claire, Wis. (General jobbers of supplies and books)
Educational Publishing Corporation; 54 Clayton Street, Boston ("The Grade Teacher"; books for teacher and pupil)
Educational Test Bureau; University and 15th Avenues, S. E., Minneapolis (Standardized tests, etc.)
Elder: Paul Elder and Company; 239 Post Street, San Francisco
Elm Tree Press; Woodstock, Vt.
Encyclopedia Britannica, Inc.; 342 Madison Avenue, New York
Excelsior Publishing Company; 368 Milwaukee Avenue, Milwaukee
Financial Liberty League; 7 Pine Street, New York
Fischer: Carl Fischer, Inc.; 56 Cooper Square, New York
Flanagan: A. Flanagan Company; 920 N. Franklin Street, Chicago (Jobbers of everything for schools)
Forbes: B. C. Forbes Publishing Company; 120 Fifth Avenue, New York
Forsythe Publishing Company; 204 South 8th Street, St. Louis
Foster: Charles Foster Publishing Company; 716 Sansome Street, Philadelphia
Four Seas Company; 470 Stuart Street, Boston
Franklin Publishing and Supply Company; 1931 Cherry Street, Philadelphia
Frontier Press Company; 1823 Prairie Avenue, Chicago (Special publications)
Funk and Wagnalls Company; 345–360 Fourth Avenue, New York (Standard Dictionary and other publications)
Garden City Educational Company; 515 S. Wells Street, Chicago (Jobbers)
Ginn and Company; 70 Fifth Avenue, New York (Textbooks, children's books, teachers' books, etc.)
Globe Book Company; 175 Fifth Avenue, New York
Gorham Press; *see* R. G. Badger
Grafton Press: Frederick H. Hitchcock; 145 West 40th Street, New York
Gray: H. W. Gray Company; 159 East 48th Street, New York

Gregg Publishing Company; 20 West 47th Street, New York

Gregory: Dr. C. A. Gregory, Director, Bureau Administrative Research, College of Education, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati (Educational tests)

Grolier Company, 2 West 45th Street, New York ("The Book of Knowledge")

Grossett and Dunlap; 1140 Broadway, New York (Children's books)

Haight: R. J. Haight; 440 S. Dearborn Street, Chicago

Hall and McCreary Company; 430–432 S. Wabash Avenue, Chicago

Hammett: J. L. Hammett Company; Cambridge, Mass. (General supplies)

Hammond: C. S. Hammond and Company; 30 Church Street, New York

Harcourt, Brace and Company; 383 Madison Avenue, New York

Hardy: L. P. Hardy and Company; South Bend, Ind.

Harper and Brothers; 49 East 33rd Street, New York

Harter School Supply Company; 2046 East 71st Street, Cleveland (All kinds of seat work and supplies for teachers)

Harvard University Press; Randall Hall, Cambridge, Mass.

Heath: D. C. Heath and Company; 285 Columbus Avenue, Boston (Textbooks, teachers' books, children's books)

Henley: Norman W. Henley Publishing Company; 2 West 45th Street, New York

Hinds, Hayden and Eldredge, Inc.; 5 Union Square, New York (Books for teachers and children)

Holt: Henry Holt and Company; 1 Park Avenue, New York (Textbooks, teachers' books, etc.)

Houghton Mifflin Company; 2 Park Street, Boston (Teachers' books and children's books)

Huebsch: B. W. Huebsch (The Viking Press); 30 Irving Place, New York

Ideal School Supply Company; 3700–3702 Wentworth Avenue, Chicago (Teachers' supplies, seat work, etc.)

Industrial Education Book Company; Box 153, Back Bay, Boston
Industrial Press; 140–148 Lafayette Street, New York
International Publishers Company, Inc.; 381 Fourth Avenue, New York
Iroquois Publishing Company; Syracuse, N. Y. (Workbooks, teachers' helps, textbooks)
Johnson Publishing Company; Richmond, Va. (Books for teacher and pupil)
Jones: Marshall Jones Company; 212 Summer Street, Boston
Judd: Orange Judd Publishing Company, Inc.; 15 East 26th Street, New York
Kenyon Press; 291 Kenyon Avenue, Wauwatosa, Wis.
Kingsley, Mason and Rogers Company; 734–738 S. Broadway, Los Angeles
Knopf: Alfred A. Knopf; 730 Fifth Avenue, New York
Laidlaw Brothers; 2001 Calumet Avenue, Chicago (Textbooks)
Laird and Lee; 2001 Calumet Avenue, Chicago
Lane: John Lane, London; (American agents: Bridgman Publishers, Pelham, N. Y.)
LaSalle University Press; 4101 S. Michigan Avenue, Chicago
J. S. Latta, Inc.; Cedar Falls, Ia. (All kinds of supplies)
Laurel Book Company; 325 S. Market Street, Chicago (Textbooks, writing books, etc.)
Lea and Febiger; 600 S. Washington Square, Philadelphia
Lippincott: J. B. Lippincott Company; East Washington Square, Philadelphia (Teachers' and pupils' books)
Little, Brown and Company; 34 Beacon Street, Boston (Variety of books, including children's literature)
Longmans, Green and Company; 55 Fifth Avenue, New York
Lothrop, Lee and Shepard Company; 275 Congress Street Boston (Children's books)
Luce: John W. Luce and Company; 212 Summer Street, Boston
Lyons and Carnahan; 221 E. Cullerton Street, Chicago (Textbooks and other books)
McBride: Robert M. McBride and Company; 7 West 16th Street, New York

McClurg: A. C. McClurg and Company; 329 E. Ontario Street, Chicago

McDevitt-Wilson's, Inc.; 30 Church Street, New York

McGraw-Hill Book Company; 370 Seventh Avenue, New York

McKay: David McKay; 604–608 S. Washington Square, Philadelphia

McKinley Publishing Company; 1619 Ranstead Street, Philadelphia

McKnight and McKnight; Normal, Ill. (Teachers' helps, geography workbooks, etc.)

Macmillan: The Macmillan Company; 60 Fifth Avenue, New York (A very large list of publications for teacher, parent, and child)

Macrae-Smith Company; 1712–1714 Ludlow Street, Philadelphia (Children's and other books)

McVey: John Jos. McVey; 1229 Arch Street, Philadelphia

Manual Arts Press; 237 North Monroe Street, Peoria, Ill. (Manual training)

Marquis: The A. N. Marquis Company; 670 Cass Street, Chicago ("Who's Who in America")

Marvin and Gepfert; Cleveland, O.

Mendota Book Company; 208 Lathrop Street, Madison, Wis.

Mentzer, Bush and Company; 2210 South Park Avenue, Chicago (Textbooks, etc.)

Merriam: G. and C. Merriam Company; Springfield, Mass. (Webster dictionaries)

Methodist Book Concern; 150 Fifth Avenue, New York

Merrill: Charles E. Merrill Company; 387 Fourth Avenue, New York (Textbooks and supplementary books)

Minton, Balch and Company; 11–17 East 45th Street, New York

Mitchell Manufacturing Company; 1804 Forest Home Avenue, Milwaukee, Wis. ("Merry Whirl," etc.)

Munn and Company; *see* Scientific American Publishing Company

National Association of Audubon Societies; 1874 Broadway, New York (Birds)

National Dairy Council; 307 N. Michigan Avenue, Chicago (Health literature)
National Geographic Society; 16th Avenue and M Street, Washington, D. C. (Geographic Magazine)
National Kindergarten and Elementary College; 2770 Sheridan Road, Evanston, Ill.
National Tuberculosis Association; 370 Seventh Avenue, New York
Nelson: Thomas Nelson and Sons; 381–385 Fourth Avenue, New York
New Republic, Inc.; 421 West 21st Street, New York
Newson and Company; 73 Fifth Avenue, New York
Noble and Noble; 76 Fifth Avenue, New York
Novello and Company; London, England (American agents: H. W. Gray)
Nystrom: A. J. Nystrom and Company; 3333 Elston Avenue, Chicago (Maps)
Open Court Publishing Company; 337 E. Chicago Avenue, Chicago
Ottenheimer: I. and M. Ottenheimer Company; 800 E. Fayette Street, Baltimore
Outing Publishing Company; Albany, New York
Owen: F. A. Owen Publishing Company; Dansville, N. Y. ("Normal Instructor and Primary Plans"; books for teachers and children)
Oxford University Press; 114 Fifth Avenue, New York
Page: L. C. Page and Company; 53 Beacon Street, Boston
Paine Publishing Company; 15 East 4th Street, Dayton, O.
Palmer Company; 120 Boylston Street, Boston, Mass. (Outline books, tests, books for teacher and pupil)
Palmer: A. N. Palmer Company; 55 Fifth Avenue, New York (Penmanship)
Paul: Peter Paul and Son, Inc.; 256 Delaware Avenue, Buffalo, N. Y.
Penn Publishing Company; 925 Filbert Street, Philadelphia
Perry Pictures Company; Malden, Mass. (Pictures)

Pilgrim Press; 14 Beacon Street, Boston (Sunday school supplies; books for teacher and pupil)
Pitman: Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons; 2–6 West 45th Street, New York
Plymouth Press; 7850–7856 Lowe Street, Chicago (Teaching helps and accessories)
Pott: James Pott and Company; 214 East 23rd Street, New York
Prang: The Prang Company; 1922 Calumet Avenue, Chicago (Drawing and art)
Prentice-Hall, Inc.; 70 Fifth Avenue, New York
Press Publishing Company; 53 Park Row, New York
Presser: Theodore Presser Company; 1714 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia
Public School Publishing Company; Bloomington, Ill. (Books for teachers, standard tests, children's books)
Putnam: G. P. Putnam's Sons; 2–6 West 45th Street, New York
Quarrie: W. F. Quarrie and Company; 154 E. Erie Street, Chicago ("The New World Book Encyclopedia")
Rand McNally and Company; 536 S. Clark Street, Chicago (Textbooks, maps, atlases, juvenile literature, etc.)
Reilly and Lee Company; 536 Lake Shore Drive, Chicago
Revell: Fleming H. Revell and Company; 158 Fifth Avenue, New York (General and juvenile literature)
Richardson: B. G. Richardson Company; 414 Madison Avenue, New York
Rigby Publishing Company; Topeka, Kans.
Riverside Press; *see* Houghton Mifflin Company
Rockwell and Churchill Press; Boston
Ronald Press Company; 15 East 26th Street, New York
Routledge and Sons; London, England (American agents: E. P. Dutton and Sons)
Row, Peterson and Company; 1911 Ridge Avenue, Evanston, Ill. (Textbooks and children's books)
Rowe: H. M. Rowe Company; 624 N. Gilmor Street, Baltimore
Rumford Press; Concord, N. H.
Rudin: John Rudin and Company; 1018 S. Wabash Avenue, Chicago

Saalfield Publishing Company; Akron, O.
Sage: Russell Sage Foundation; 130 East 22nd Street, New York
Sanborn: Benj. H. Sanborn and Company; 131 Clarendon Street, Boston
Saunders; W. B. Saunders Company, West Washington Square, Philadelphia
Schirmer: G. Schirmer; 3 East 43rd Street, New York
Schwabacher-Frey Stationery Company, 736 South Broadway, Los Angeles
Schmidt: Arthur P. Schmidt Company; 120 Boylston Street, Boston (Music)
Scientific American Publishing Company; 24 West 40th Street, New York
Scientific Book Corporation; 15 East 26th Street, New York
Scott, Foresman and Company; 623–633 S. Wabash Avenue, Chicago (Textbooks and children's books)
Scribner: Charles Scribner's Sons, 597 Fifth Avenue, New York
Sears: J. H. Sears and Company, Inc.; 114 East 32nd Street, New York
Shaw: A. W. Shaw Company; 660 Cass Street, Chicago
Silver, Burdett and Company; 41 Union Square, W., New York (Textbooks and children's books)
Simmons-Boardman Publishing Company; 30 Church Street, New York
Smithsonian Institute; Washington, D. C.
South-Western Publishing Company; 3 West 3rd Street, Cincinnati
Spon and Chamberlain; 120–122 Liberty Street, New York
Stechert: G. E. Stechert and Company; 31–33 East 10th Street, New York
Stokes: Frederick A. Stokes Company; 443–449 Fourth Avenue, New York
Sully: Geo. Sully and Company; 114 East 25th Street, New York
Summy: Clayton F. Summy Company; 429 Wabash Avenue, Chicago (Music)

Teachers College Bureau of Publications; 525 West 120th Street, New York

Tennant and Ward; 70 Fifth Avenue, New York

Thompson: Edward Thompson and Company; Northport, L. I., N. Y.

Thrift, Inc.; 154–156 N. Marion Street, Oak Park, Ill.

University of Chicago Press; 5750 Ellis Avenue, Chicago (College publications, largely)

University Publishing Company; 1126–1128 Q Street, Lincoln, Neb. (Textbooks and juvenile books)

University Society, Inc.; 468 Fourth Avenue, New York

Van Nostrand: D. Van Nostrand Company; 8 Warren Street, New York

Victor Talking Machine Division; Radio-Victor Corp. of America, Educational Dept., Camden, N. J. (Music)

Viking Press; 30 Irving Place, New York

Volland: P. F. Volland Company; 58 E. Washington Street, Chicago (Specialties)

Wagner: Harr Wagner Publishing Company; 609 Mission Street, San Francisco

Warne: Frederick Warne and Company; 26 East 22nd Street, New York (Children's books, etc.)

Warwick and York, Inc.; 10 E. Center Street, Baltimore (Educational specialties)

Webb Publishing Company; 55–57 E. 10th Street, St. Paul (Books, etc., for teacher and pupil)

Weber Costello Company; Chicago Heights, Ill. (General supplies of all kinds; manufacturers of blackboards, globes, etc.)

Webster Publishing Company; 1808 Washington Avenue, St. Louis (Teacher and pupil helps)

Westbrook: The Arthur Westbrook Company; Athens and Halstead Streets, Cleveland

Wheeler: W. H. Wheeler Company; 2831 S. Park Way, Chicago (Textbooks, supplementary readers, etc.)

Whitman Publishing Company; Racine, Wis.

Whitman: Albert Whitman and Company; 323 W. Randolph Street, Chicago
Wilde: W. A. Wilde Company; 131 Clarendon Street, Boston
Willis Music House; Cincinnati
Wiley: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.; 440 Fourth Avenue, New York
Williams Publishing Company; 2812 Paseo Blvd., Kansas City, Mo.
Wilson: H. W. Wilson Company; 958–972 University Avenue, New York (Library accessories of all kinds)
Winston: John C. Winston Company; 1006–1016 Arch Street, Philadelphia
Woman's Press; 600 Lexington Avenue, New York
World Book Company; Park Hill, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York
Writers Publishing Company, Inc.; 9 West 64th Street, New York
Yale University Press; 143 Elm Street, New Haven, Conn.

The National Broadcasting Company, Inc., 711 Fifth Avenue, New York City, publishes a 66-page *Instructor's Manual* for Music Appreciation Hour, which is very valuable in these days of music broadcasting and which features some of the work of Walter Damrosch.

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